The Nation.

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The Week.

THE controversy in the House on Monday over the question of pension legislation serves to emphasize the recklessness with which the Republicans support every scheme of extravagance. Among the bills which they wanted to push through, the most important was one proposing to repeal the arrears limitation, and in this attitude they were only living up to the Republican national platform of 1884, which said: "The Republican party pledges itself to the repeal of the limitation contained in the Arrears Act of 1879, so that all invalid soldiers shall share alike, and their pensions begin with the date of disability, and not with the date of application." The lowest estimate of the amount which such a change would call for is three hundred millions of dollars, and the probability is that it would prove to be a great deal more. Yet there is no doubt that if the Republicans had carried the election of 1884, this immense job would have been carried through, and they are already giving fresh pledges to vote away these hundreds of millions if the people will restore them to power in 1888.

The Prohibition party perceived the fitness of making mention of the tariff in their national platform. It is instructive to observe that the Platform Committee, being under no partisan bias, took the common-sense view of the question—the view that is undoubtedly held by nine-tenths of the unprejudiced people of the country, viz., that the Treasury surplus ought to be reduced by repealing duties on the necessaries of life. The resolution reported by the Committee was as follows:

> "That an adequate public revenue being necessary, it may properly be raised by import duties and by an equitable assessment upon the property and the legitimate business of the country; but import duties should be so reduced that no surplus shall be accumulated in the Treasury, and that the burdens of taxation shall be removed from food, clothing, and other comforts and necessaries of life."

This is what the average citizen believes and is ready to vote for. If the platform of the Prohibitionists had been left as it was reported and unanimously adopted, it would have been complete and satisfactory. But at the evening session a Pennsylvania delegate proposed an additional paragraph which was adopted in these words:

> "And imposed on such other articles of import as will give protection both to the manufacturing employer and the producing laborer against the competition of the world."

The platform as thus finished is a concession to protectionism, but is by no means sufficiently so to meet the requirements of the tariff Republicans, whose record as made up in the House of Representatives is against any reductions of protective duties whatever, whether on the necessaries or on the luxuries of life.

There was a long letter in the *Times* on Monday, apparently inspired by somebody in the Treasury, which was doubtless intended to explain "the sugar frands," but, unhappily, explains nothing. It is simply a very verbose plea that it is a shame to suspect such excellent men as Mr. Maynard and Mr. Fairchild of making mistakes. Some of its statements are really astonishing. But supposing them to be all true, how are we to account for the fact that only three or four underlings in the Appraiser's Department were removed, while the Appraiser himself, Mr. McMullen, and other chiefs who approved of these subordinates and vouched for them, were left untouched? And what about Deputy-Collector Davis, the Broome County politician, and his ten Binghamton "heelers"? Was it all along of those "sugar frauds" that these gentry were allowed to leave their work to run caucuses and conventions and speculate in post-office sites in Binghamton?

The defeat of Mr. J. B. Eustis for re-election to the United States Senate from Louisiana is a matter for congratulation, and carries with it some instructive lessons. Mr. Eustis was, we think, the first leading Democrat in the country to denounce the civil-service policy which President Cleveland adopted at the beginning of his Administration. In an interview to which he subjected himself in April, 1885, before the President had been in office two months, he spoke as follows: "You can say for me—and you cannot say it too strong—that in my judgment Mr. Cleveland, from a Democratic standpoint, has been a conspicuous and humiliating failure. . . . The fact that a horde of unscrupulous, ignorant, dyed-in-the-wool, and offensively partisan radical leaders are permitted to remain in office all over the country under Democratic rule, and in direct violation and contradiction of the very principles of Democracy and the wishes of a majority of the people as expressed at the ballot-box, is a shame and a disgrace, and a reflection on the competency, capability, and character of those whose suffrages placed Mr. Cleveland in the White House. . . . The Democratic element will see to it that this Administration is Democratic in the full significance of the term, or that Mr. Cleveland and his Cabinet shall fall and be buried in the ruins they have made." This talk was eagerly reproduced by the *Sun* and similar advocates of the spoils doctrine, and pointed to by them as the beginning of the revolt that the President was preparing for himself. In private conversation Eustis did not hesitate to say that he cared nothing for the doctrine of the thing, but that he meant to make himself "solid" with the Louisiana legislators. Instead, however, of seeing the President and his Cabinet "buried in the ruins they have made," he finds himself retired to private life by the very legislators whom he thought his demagogism would please, and this only a week in advance of the date on which the President was to be unanimously renominated. The defeat of such a man as Eustis ought to give the President a good deal of information as to where his real strength in his party and throughout the country lies.

The most interesting and encouraging feature of the message submitted to the Louisiana Legislature by Mr. McEnery, the retiring Governor, was the passage devoted to education. It opens with the statement that since the last session of the General Assembly there has been a greater interest manifested in the cause of education throughout the State than at any time in the previous history of Louisiana, and declares that "the people will approve of any legislation that will promote this great interest." Mr. McEnery recalled the fact that in previous messages he had urged legislation in behalf of an enlarged and enlightened system of public education, and insisted that "to effect this the hard fact of local taxation must be resorted to." This is recognized as a necessity in the Constitution of the State, but unfortunately that instrument restricts the amount of taxation and does not permit the parishes (which correspond to counties in the North) to levy so large a local school tax as is required. Mr. McEnery therefore recommended that the Constitution should be so amended as to permit each parish to levy a tax sufficient, with the State tax, to keep the public schools open eight months in the year, and an act proposing such an amendment has since been introduced in the Legislature. The only thing Louisiana has ever lacked to secure good schools was a readiness on the part of the people to tax themselves enough to provide such schools; and the most hopeful feature of the present situation is the evidence that they are at last showing a willingness to put their hands in their own pockets, instead of trying to get them into the Treasury at Washington.

The change in St. Louis journalism which occurred during the week is of far more than local interest. The *Republican*, a Democratic paper which dates back to the early years of the century, and whose name has grown a misnomer during the last generation, has become the *Republic*, and it has a new management as well as a new name. The incoming editor, Mr. Charles H. Jones, has proved his quality by building up the *Florida Times-Union* into one of the most influential papers in the South, and he is excellently fitted to improve the wider opportunity which now opens to him in the West. The policy of the new management, as outlined in the first number, commits the *Republic* to the advocacy

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of tariff reform, civil-service reform, and reform in liquor legislation, and the paper promises to be a great power for good. The change is the more noteworthy and hopeful from the fact that the old *Republican* had come to be a Bourbon sheet, while the position which it occupied is one that ought to be filled by a thoroughly progressive journal, such as the *Republic* is sure to be.

"The excitement" in Memphis, Tenn., "is intense," we learn, and "further trouble is feared," which is not surprising, considering that Kennedy Porter, a son of ex-Gov. Porter, who was severely shot some weeks ago by Will Edmunds, for paying attention to Miss Edmunds, having recovered his health, determined on Monday to murder Will on sight. He accordingly "opened fire" on him in the street, and they exchanged nine shots in all, Edmunds being badly wounded and Porter escaping on horseback. Two hours later Alexander White, the cashier of the Commercial Bank of Paris, Tenn., was telling about the fight to a friend in the street, when Dudley Porter, the brother of Kennedy, happening to pass by and overhearing what he was saying, was dissatisfied with his version of the affair, and sought to amend it by informing White that a certain passage in it was a "damned lie." White refused to accept this amendment, and determined to murder Porter for offering it, and accordingly shot him dead. We ought to add that the relations between these two gentlemen were already strained, owing to Porter's having murdered White's brother on a previous occasion. We need hardly say that all the combatants belong to the first families in Tennessee, and that the affair is greatly deplored.

The action of the two Presbyterian Assemblies on the question of organic union has the appearance of a game at cross purposes. The Northern body went to the very extreme of concession and conciliation, adopted a report which had been beforehand freely condemned as giving the whole case away to the Southern Church, and appointed an enlarged committee to renew negotiations. But the Baltimore Assembly dashed the entire scheme by voting by a large majority that organic union was impracticable. This leaves the Northern Church in the very awkward position of having confidently held out a hand only to have it refused. The decision of the Southern Assembly in the Woodrow case certainly lends color to the belief that the Presbyterians of the South are much more sensitively conservative than those of the North. We do not believe that the astounding deliverance on evolution could have been put through the Northern Assembly, even under the spur of theological terrorism with which ecclesiastical bodies are so often ridden. At any rate, with an acknowledged evolutionist at the head of one of its committees, the Philadelphia Assembly would have seemed rather more absurd in passing such a resolution than did the Baltimore gathering.

The Massachusetts Ballot-Reform Bill has been presented for enactment in the Rhode Island Legislature, and its passage is earnestly recommended by the leading journals of both parties in the State. As the quality of the new Legislature is unusually good, there appears to be an excellent prospect for the bill to become a law. Certainly there is no State in the Union where such a law is more urgently demanded, for there is none in which the use of money in elections is carried on more openly, or one in which its influence has been more demoralizing and degrading. Even in the South it would be difficult to find a community in which the moral sense upon the crime of corrupting the ballot-box is more torpid than it is in the intelligent and virtuous State of Rhode Island. The argument that the Republicans must use money because the Democrats do, since that is the only way by which to keep the wicked Democrats out of power, has for years carried all before it. The proposed law would put an end to this style of reasoning, for under it no party would use money to buy votes, for the simple reason that it would be impossible to follow the bribed voter to the polls to see if he voted in accordance with the sale.

The substitution of electricity for hanging in the infliction of capital punishment, in the bill which the Governor has just signed, will put an end to a great deal of revolting barbarism. There never was a word to be said by anybody for execution by hanging, except that it gave a chance for the infliction of torture on the culprit through the vigor of his constitution, or the unskilfulness of the hangman, and afforded the spectators a very brutalizing show. In fact, it was its spectacular possibilities which first commended it to English jurisprudence. The criminal was hanged because he could be seen dangling by thousands when the drop fell or the cart moved away, or could be left hanging as a warning to wicked passers by. The preservation of this mode of execution since executions have become private has been a cruel absurdity. Its horrors have been aggravated in this country, however, by our practice of making the criminal a sort of hero, and surrounding him with a savage pomp, after sentence has been passed. His cell has been open to all comers. Reporters interviewed him every day, and took down his observations on his trial, his denunciations of his prosecutors or jailers, and his maudlin reflections on his situation, and reported the flowers he received and the names of his "callers." All this is now to come to an end. There is to be complete seclusion after sentence. The day of the execution is not to be announced beforehand, and the infliction of the sentence to be witnessed by very few, and, although the body is to be delivered to the friends, wakes and public funerals are not to be allowed.

The most exasperating part of the Fishery Treaty to good Republicans is the *modus vivendi* under which American fishermen are allowed shore privileges by taking out licenses for which they pay $1.50 per ton per year. Any *modus vivendi* is bad, because there is danger that the fishermen will avail themselves of it, and thus get through the season without any other grievances than the payment of the money. But the worst kind of a *modus* is one which proves the falsity of the oft-repeated statement that we want nothing of Canada except what the Treaty of 1818 gives us. The Treaty of 1818 did not give us the right to buy bait, but expressly excepted that privilege. And now comes the schooner *Druid* from Newfoundland with a catch of 180,000 pounds of cod, and reports that both the American and the French fishing fleets had put in to Newfoundland for bait, and that the Americans had taken out licenses and procured all the bait they wanted, while the French were not allowed either licenses or bait. How much happier the condition of the Frenchmen must be, for they can go home with a grievance even if they have no cod. We have not heard of any retaliation bill in the French Chambers in consequence of this discrimination in favor of Americans, but perhaps it is too early to look for one.

The controversy still raging in England and Ireland over the Papal Rescript is one of the oddest of the many odd things which the Irish question has brought to the surface. The first queer thing about it is the cagerness with which the Rescript has been received by the Ministry and the Tory press as a means of putting down "the Plan of Campaign" and boycotting, in the presence of Mr. Balfour's repeated declarations that the Crimes Act has actually been successful not only in stopping the Plan of Campaign and in suppressing boycotting, but in extinguishing the National League itself, at least in a large part of the country. If this boast is justifiable, the Pope's assistance has very little if any importance. The second queer thing is the fierceness with which even the Unionist press in England maintains that the Rescript is sure to be obeyed both by the clergy and the people, against the vehement assurances of the Irish politicians that it will not be so obeyed. To rejoice over the strength of Papal influence in Irish politics is to run counter to all the strongest traditions of English politics. We believe it would be impossible to name an English statesman or publicist of the last eighty years who has not held that the strength of the Irish allegiance to the Catholic clergy and the Pope constituted the greatest difficulty in the government of Ireland by England. The spectacle of a large and respectable portion of the English public, therefore, chuckling over the continued obedience of the Irish people to the Church in secular matters, and denouncing those Irish laymen who oppose it, is undoubtedly one of the strangest spectacles of modern times. It surpasses in many ways even the spectacle of Horace Greeley running for the Presidency as the candidate of the Democratic party, the report of which, according to Mark Twain's

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amusing burlesque, led Dr. Livingstone in the heart of Africa to denounce his discoverer, Stanley, as a liar, in very profane language.

Another very odd spectacle nearer home is the appearance of Mr. Chauncey Depew as a Blaineite candidate for the Presidency with all the appropriate fittings and furniture, considering that in 1872, when there were some remnants of rationality about the "bloody shirt" and other Republican properties, he ran as Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor in this State, but came out 3,533 behind his ticket. It may of course be said, in explanation of this poor show at the polls, that he had not then fully displayed his remarkable powers as an after-dinner speaker, but we maintain, and we are sure that many gentlemen will corroborate us, that his stock of stories was better then than it is now; that the earlier editions of many of them were the best; and that, in short, his place as a humorist was higher about 1872 than it has ever been since. To those who maintain that humorous anecdotes go further in the Republican than in the Democratic party, and that Lincoln owed much of his influence to his "little stories," we answer that even Lincoln could have accomplished but little with his stories in a period of tariff controversy; that jokes in defence of the tariff are all but impossible; and that the only one of the least weight which can possibly be made on that side has already been made by Mr. Evarts, and is known as "The Three-Cent Joke," showing that the tariff only costs us three cents apiece. Mr. Depew may edit this, and put foot-notes to it, but he cannot improve on it, or utilize it for himself.

The complete failure of Gen. Boulanger in the French Chamber on his first appearance with his plan will not necessarily close his political career, but it must greatly discredit him. A Cæsar, or "saviour of society," who discusses is lost. None of the others, Julius Cæsar, Cromwell, or Napoleon, ever put themselves in positions where they could be answered or inveighed against publicly. The part which Boulanger played on Monday was, in fact, that of a parliamentarian, or "avocat," as the French love to call the glib-talking politician whom he denounces so much; and in a game of this sort, although he has made one or two good hits in debate in times past, he was sure to get the worst of it. Floquet mauled him badly, ruined his "dignity," a very serious matter in France, and presented him to the public in the attitude of a feeble, helpless man, in fact, anything but the stuff for a dictator. He still continues, however, to be the outward and visible sign of a discontent which is stronger in the country at large than in Paris, and which nobody seems quite able to explain further than that the low price of cattle and the failure of the vineyards have something to do with it. The French farmers have not, in fact, been so badly off since 1815, and have not got over the old habit of blaming the Government for low prices, and the doings of the Chambers have certainly not been calculated to make the Republic seem much of a providence.

Unusually full details of the dream of an era of universal peace may be found in recent numbers of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, which gives up twelve of its pages to an attempt to prove that the neutralization of Turkey would be the long-looked-for remedy for the political evils comprised in the term "the Eastern question." The writer proposes the abrogation of the Treaty of 1841 closing the Dardanelles to the vessels of war of all nations alike, and the adoption of an international agreement granting free access to the Black Sea to war ships of all flags. This measure would, in his opinion, be but the prelude to the neutralization of Turkey itself, that is to say, to an international control of the financial, judicial, and religious administration of its European provinces. The throwing open of the Dardanelles, or rather of the Black Sea, to the navies of Europe would be an insuperable barrier to Russian aggression in the Balkan Peninsula, while Turkey, deprived of the control of the straits, would cease to be alternately courted and threatened by the diplomacy of England, Austria, and Germany. The precedent for this kind of neutralization is found in the recently proposed convention relative to the Suez Canal, by which the freedom of the canal is to be guaranteed, through the joint action of the great Powers, to the navies of all nations, in time of war as well as in time of peace. The waters of the Congo Basin were similarly neutralized by the Berlin stipulations of 1885. The author of these suggestions fondly hopes that Russia, having abandoned her designs on Constantinople, would devote herself to the promotion of liberty in Warsaw and Moscow, and that Turkey would console herself for her loss of power in Europe by her new mission as a civilizer of Asia and Africa.

A very curious meeting of the new and the old occurred the other day in Turkey near the Servian frontier, on the opening of a continuation of the line from Belgrade which is eventually to connect with Constantinople. Before the Turkish train on the Turkish side of the line started, there was a delay to enable some Mussulman Imaums to sacrifice three sheep; and as sacrifices are not things which can be done in a hurry, the delay was a long one. The passengers, however, all took it very calmly, and, when the sacrifice was over, got into the cars and went their ways. We suppose the sacrifice was intended to give the train a good send-off, and at the same time to provide some mutton for the sacerdotal families.

In a recent address before the Royal Colonial Institute on "The New Industrial Era in India," Sir Wm. Hunter sounded a new note of alarm to the English farmer and manufacturer. After a rapid sketch of the growth of the foreign trade of India, from £9,500,000 sterling of exports in 1834 to £88,000,000 in 1884, he dwelt upon the progress made in the culture of wheat, of which the amount exported has increased tenfold since 1873, while the whole area under wheat in Great Britain is less than half that in the Punjab alone. With improved methods of agriculture, which are sure to come, he believes it impossible to set any limits to the ultimate dimensions of this crop. Oil-seeds show a similar increase. As regards manufactures, India's cotton and jute mills, having in 1884 2,000,000 spindles, and employing over 110,000 people, are already formidable competitors of the Lancashire manufacturers. Even iron-smelting has advanced to a stage at which its commercial success seems almost assured. In view of these facts he believed "that the world seemed now to be entering on a new era of competition — the competition between the productive powers of the tropics and of the temperate zone." One of the great economic questions for the coming "commercial Viceroy," who was what India, having had "conquering Viceroys and consolidating Viceroys," now needed, was in respect to the railways, which are a Government monopoly. Should the rates be kept high for the sake of revenue, or would the Government "content itself with the actual interest on its outlay, and thus give an enormous impulse to Indian agriculture, commerce, and manufactures by low charges of carriage? The reduction of railway rates in India meant a cheaper loaf for England." He did not, however, conceal from his audience the conviction that this "development of India as a manufacturing and food-exporting country would involve changes in English production which must for a time be attended with suffering and loss." Still, he was equally sure that it would in the end be a gain to England and to the world.

The British Government is almost at loggerheads with the Australian colonies on the Chinese question. They have for some time past levied a poll tax of $50 on every Chinese immigrant, and restricted the number to one for every 100 tons of the ship's burden. They now propose to prohibit Chinese immigration altogether, and ask the Imperial Government to follow the example of the United States by negotiating an exclusion treaty with China. This the Ministry thus far has declined to do, and even threatens to veto Australian legislation for the same object; the result is, great excitement in the colonies. Lord Carrington, the Governor of New South Wales, has sent home a despatch at the instance of the Colonial Premier, Sir Henry Parkes, in which the latter makes known that if the proposed treaty be not promptly negotiated, "the Australian Parliament must act from the force of public opinion in devising measures to defend the colonies from consequences which they cannot relax in their efforts to avert." As there is not the smallest interest in the matter in England, the probabilities are that the colonists will eventually have their own way.

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MR. BLAINE'S LAST WITHDRAWAL.

When Mr. Blaine's letter to Chairman Jones, from Florence, dated January 25, was published, we said that whether it were sincerely intended to withdraw him from the list of candidates or not, it would have that effect and produce that result, because it would detach a large body of his supporters in every State, who would forthwith make new alliances and committals. We believed that a man of Mr. Blaine's experience as a political manager must have foreseen this, and hence that there were fair presumptions of an intention on his part to withdraw. Nevertheless, the language used in his Florence letter was ambiguous, since it did not say that he would not accept the nomination if tendered to him, but merely that his name would not be presented to the Convention. It was quite within his power to say that he would not accept the nomination. It was not within his power to say that his name would not be presented to the Convention, because any delegate could present it regardless of Mr. Blaine's wishes, and if one delegate could do so, a majority might do so.

Further doubt was cast upon the seriousness of the Florence letter by what followed immediately after the statement that his name would not be presented, for he proceeded to show what a magnificent gain the Republican party had made in 1884, when he was a candidate, over the result in the Congressional and State elections of 1882, laying especial emphasis on the result in New York, where Cleveland had been elected by 192,000 majority in the latter year, whereas he had won by less than 1,100 majority in the Presidential fight. The implication of this reminder was that his own name was a tower of strength to the party.

The Blaine men and the Blaine newspapers were at first stunned by the Florence letter, and for two or three days they said that it had taken their candidate out of the field. But when they had had time for critical examination of the text, they began to say that it was not a withdrawal, but merely a general declaration that, while not a candidate, he was "in the hands of his friends," and was "subject to draft," etc., etc. On this basis of false pretences his own State of Maine elected delegates in his favor, and, according to the claim of the Philadelphia *Press*, 377 delegates were chosen in his favor, a goodly number of whom were under positive instructions for him. All these proceedings went on without a word of remonstrance from him.

But now, after all the delegates, or all except an insignificant number, have been chosen, he writes from Paris expressing the surprise with which he learns that, notwithstanding his Florence letter, his name may yet be presented to the Convention. So, after ringing many changes on his astonishment that his valued friends could have so misinterpreted his Florence letter, he says: "Assuming that the Presidential nomination could by any possible chance be offered to me, I could not accept it without leaving in the minds of thousands of these men the impression that I had not been free from indirection, *and therefore I could not accept it at all.*" There are a few of the Blaine faction who think that there is still room for doubt. They point to the similar language used by Gov. Seymour in 1868, and speculate upon the chances of an interminable struggle in the coming Convention which shall make Mr. Blaine a necessity. We beg to remind these enthusiastic squires of the Plumed Knight that this is not the year 1868, and that Mr. Blaine is not Gov. Seymour, and that the Republican party is not the Democratic party. Mr. Blaine is "out" now. By whatsoever means he got out, he is out for good and all.

We are thankful for this, because we can now look forward to a campaign upon principles. There is reasonable assurance that the next President of the United States will be one upon whose personal character no stain rests. He may be a spoilsman in the party sense. He may be a high-tariff man or anything politically obnoxious to our conceptions of what is best for the country. But he will not be the author of the Mulligan letters, or of any letters that need to be burned in order to qualify him to receive the votes of his fellow-citizens. The country has made that much gain. When we look back at the twelve years' struggle to keep Blaine out of the White House, these letters all the time staring us in the face, we are bound to say that it is a great gain.

The question, Who comes next? is the momentous one for the Republican party. Judge Gresham is, in our opinion, the strongest man in the party. He is strong because he represents the opposite of Blaine both in personal character and in public aims. We believe that his candidacy would give Mr. Cleveland and the Democratic party more trouble than that of any other man who can be named. We say frankly that we hope he may be nominated, not that we should expect to support him—we could hardly do so on the procrustean tariff platform that his party in Congress has made up—but because we desire to see both parties and all parties put the best foot foremost. In this way only do we see the path of true progress, advancement, and enlightenment for the republic.

While our hopes and best wishes go with the supporters of Judge Gresham, we do not see much prospect of his nomination. The Blaine men are still the strongest force in the Convention, and although their first choice is out of the field, their second choice will in all probability be the winner. That second choice may be Harrison, or Alger, or Allison, possibly Foraker, but will not be Gresham. It will not be Sherman, because Sherman stopped the Blaine movement last year in Ohio and furnished a rallying point for opposition, just as he stopped the third-term movement and furnished a rallying-point against it in 1880. Moreover, Mr. Sherman, when holding the reins of power, is not a man of complaisance. When he drives he follows his own way. He is no Garfield, to take another man on the box-seat and let him drive part of the time. The Blaine strength at Chicago will be given to the candidate whose immediate representatives will offer the best terms to the Blaine cohort of the past twelve years, and that candidate will be nominated unless the cohort shall look upon success at the polls as of more importance than continued control of the party organization. We do not anticipate any such display of the spirit of self-abnegation on their part.

THE "HORDE OF OFFICE-HOLDERS."

There was no point in Mr. Curtis's address on Tuesday week which was so loudly applauded by the great audience whom he both charmed and instructed, as his suggestion of a constitutional amendment lengthening the Presidential term, and making Presidents ineligible for reëlection. Of course, this is not a new suggestion. It has been often made before, and it is based on the same experience of human nature in politics to which we were indebted for Mr. Cleveland's emphatic condemnation of a second term in his letter of acceptance. It happens just now, however, to receive fresh point from the verification of his own views which Mr. Cleveland is unhappily furnishing to the country. What he said was:

> "When we consider the patronage of this great office, the allurements of power, the temptation to retain public places once gained, and, more than all, the availability a party finds in an incumbent whom a horde of office-holders, with a zeal born of benefits received and fostered by the hope of favors yet to come, stand ready to aid with money and political service, we recognize in the eligibility of the President for reëlection a most serious danger to that calm, deliberate, and intelligent action which must characterize a government of the people."

We are sure he must himself regret, even more poignantly than any of his supporters, that he should have so soon furnished that striking illustration of his own doctrine which the civil-service reformers lamented in their meeting on May 30. But when his argument is examined, it is found to be really an argument not against a second term, but against a particular mode of securing it. We doubt if there be anybody in the country, spoilsman or reformer, who questions the desirableness of being able to keep a good President eight years in office, if the interests of the country seem to require it. Nobody thinks eight years a dangerously long period for anybody to fill the highest executive place in this country, particularly if he have, when half-way through it, submitted himself afresh to the popular judgment. What everybody means, and what President Cleveland himself meant, when denouncing a second term, was that it was a bad thing to get a second term by using the Executive patronage to reward party workers and pack nominating conventions. If this practice could be abolished, second terms would really have no opponents. If it had been abolished four years ago, President Cleveland's reëlection to-day would, we think, be assured beyond any manner of doubt. What puts his reëlection in peril, if in peril it be, is simply the fact that he has allowed his superserviceable managers to use the public offices, which he said were public trusts, to purchase the support of the delegates to the nomi-

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nating conventions. It is true that his predecessors did exactly the same thing; but then he preferred stronger guarantees than any of his predecessors that he would do nothing of the kind.

It is not surprising that, under these circumstances, the idea that we must have only one term, and make that six years, gains ground, and will probably continue to gain ground. Thousands are now convinced who were never convinced before, that the American man, as at present constructed, does not furnish virtue enough both for a second term and the control of the patronage. It has been said that we cannot tell what a banker's credit really is until we have seen him go through one financial panic, or what any man's morals are until we have seen him exposed to one first-class temptation. In fact, no man knows himself thoroughly until he has passed through this ordeal. The young Christian whom Tertullian tells of, thought a visit to the amphitheatre would be useful in deepening his horror of gladiatorial shows; but when he got there—"spectavit, exarsit, clamavit"—he was as eager to see, and got as excited and yelled as loudly as anybody. He was not so good a Christian when he came away as when he went in, but he was better acquainted with the secrets of his own nature. There is a good story of a colonel in the late war who was in command at an outpost, and suddenly deserted and did not turn up for several weeks. He then confessed, with shame, that the cotton speculators were getting so near the breaking strain on his virtue, by their offers of money for permits, that he felt he must run away in order to avoid the greater disgrace. So also, it is said that no pledges can bind a candidate for reëlection as long as he has the control of the offices, no matter how sincere he may be in making them, and that, as we cannot take away from him the control of the offices, we must wholly remove the temptation to prostitute them either for his own benefit or that of his party.

Is this really true? Must we alter the Constitution in order to protect Presidents against their own frailty? Perhaps so, but before making the change we should have to bear in mind the temptation to which every President would be subjected to help to keep his party in power, even when he himself was going out of power. Making him ineligible for reëlection would fortify him against appeals to his vanity or personal ambition, but not against the still more insidious appeals to his party fidelity, and to his sense of the value of his party to the country, and to his sense of the importance of the policy it was seeking to carry out.

In truth, the horde of office-seekers would probably, as they would say, "put in their best licks" by painting pictures of the ruin which would follow the expulsion from power of the party which had had penetration enough to single him out for the highest honor in the nation's gift. In short, prohibition of second terms would do something towards abating the great and, to our shame be it said, silly and childish abuses known under the general term of the spoils system, and accomplish, perhaps, by far the greater part of what is necessary to establish the reform, but the whole work can never be done without a change in our political usages. We must eradicate from the popular mind the idea that the public officers are the servants of the party and not of the nation, and that while it is theft to steal money from the Treasury and goods from a bonded warehouse, it is not theft to pay over national money to an idle, loafing political "worker" for trying to get you nominated for an office. One is really as dishonest as the other, but the public has not yet learned to look at the matter in this way. The work the civil-service reformers are doing in the press and on the platform is the education of popular opinion to look on all abstractions of public money from the Treasury for other than public purposes, whether it be paid out in salaries or stores, as essentially dishonest, as disgracing both the giver and the receiver, and as, therefore, something to be persistently watched and punished. That this change is being brought about, nobody can deny. The indignation of the Republicans to day over the "hypocrisy" of the Democrats, the injured air of the Democrats when anybody accuses them of office jobbing, the eagerness of all officials to show that they owe their places solely to their virtue and capacity, are signs, and very remarkable signs, of the growth of an immense popular conversion—but slow, because habits of mind cannot be changed any more readily than habits of body. This conversion, when it comes, may not make a constitutional remedy for the evil unnecessary, but without it no constitutional remedy can be thoroughly effective.

THE THIRD PARTY.

"THE mission of the Prohibition party is to break down the Republican party," said a prominent Prohibitionist of Massachusetts a few days ago. Mr. St. John, the Prohibition candidate for President in 1884, said, in the presence of the Convention of his party which adjourned at Indianapolis on Thursday: "Cleveland will be elected in 1888. The Prohibition party will elect its candidates in 1892." Other members of the Convention put the same idea in another way: "We'll destroy the Republicans first, after that the Democrats." "Our mission is to destroy the saloon power in politics. A party must be built up strong enough to control the politics of the country against the saloons and the bars."

Here we get what is undoubtedly the real meaning of the assembling of a convention of 1,800 delegates, representing every State and Congressional district in the Union, and the nominating by it of a Presidential ticket which none of the delegates expects to see elected, but which all of them will support with great enthusiasm and unanimity. Stronger evidence of the faith that is in them could not be furnished than was given when the delegates, before leaving the Convention hall, raised among themselves a campaign fund of nearly $30,000. There is something remarkable in this spectacle of men giving so generously of their money to sustain a cause which has no hope of present success. Not a man of them has any chance of getting his money back again directly or indirectly by means of office, for nobody on the ticket will get an office. They give because they have faith in their cause, and they have faith in it because there is a moral purpose behind it. Nobody can deny the great public good which could be accomplished by destroying the "saloon-power in politics." Nobody can deny, either, that the surest way by which to turn the two great political parties against that power would be to build up a greater power.

Can the Prohibitionists build up such a one? So far as concerns the Republican party, the answer is plain. They have already built up a party strong enough greatly to lessen the chances of the Republicans for carrying all the so-called doubtful States. If they had not had a Presidential ticket in the field in 1884, the Republicans would, in all probability, have carried New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, and elected their candidates. We say in all probability, for though it is a fact that the Prohibition vote in each of these States was much larger than the Democratic plurality, yet it is by no means certain that the vote cast for it would all have gone for Mr. Blaine if Mr. St. John had not been in the field. Thousands of votes were cast for St. John by Republicans who would never have voted for Blaine under any circumstances. In fact, the Prohibition party represented then, as it does now, the spirit of unrest in politics. The platform adopted at Indianapolis shows this very plainly. While it gives the first place to a demand for prohibition, it demands also that "import duties shall be so reduced that no surplus shall be accumulated in the Treasury, and that the burdens of taxation shall be removed from food, clothing, and other comforts and necessaries of life." It calls also for thorough reform of the civil service, for woman suffrage, for the abolition of polygamy, and the prohibition of Trusts. The declarations upon the tariff and against Trusts, coming from men who were nearly all former members of the Republican party, furnish one more sign of the dissatisfaction which is causing such steady disintegration in the Republican ranks.

There is every reason to believe that the third party of dissatisfaction and political unrest will poll a larger vote in November than it has ever polled before. The demoralized condition of the Republican party, and the general Bourbonism of the principles which it is daily being forced more hopelessly into adopting for its creed, will inevitably send thousands of recruits to the Prohibitionists. Instead of being afraid of the charge that they are ruining the Republican party, the Prohibition leaders are now jubilantly declaring this to be their main object. They would not have dared to do this four years ago, but the election of a Democratic President, with no ensuing damage to the country, has given them

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courage. The figures of the last national election were very significant on this point. In every previous Presidential election the Prohibition vote had fallen far below what it had been in the off-year elections immediately preceding. Thus, in the State elections of 1871 the aggregate Prohibition vote in the whole country was 16,000, but in the Presidential election of 1872 it dropped to 5,600. In 1875 it had increased to over 42,000, yet in the Presidential election of 1876 it had dropped to 9,700. It recovered its strength partially in 1879, aggregating nearly 20,000, yet in 1880 it dropped to 9,600. After 1880 it mounted steadily and rapidly, reaching nearly 59,000 in 1883. In the Presidential election of 1884, for the first time in its history, it exceeded the vote of the preceding off-year election, going to nearly 151,000, which was the highest point it had ever touched. This is what Mr. Blaine's candidacy had done for the Prohibition party—it had made it impossible for the Republican managers to scare Prohibition voters back into the Republican camp by holding before them the horrors of Democratic rule.

Since 1884 the total Prohibition vote has nearly doubled, being in 1886 about 295,000. The party has never held a national convention at all approaching in numbers and enthusiasm the one of this year, and has never entered upon a campaign with such a determined spirit. It has funds, it cannot be scared, it is satisfied that the overthrow of the Republican party is a high and laudable mission, and neither threats nor ridicule will have any effect to turn it from its purpose. The Republican managers may well look upon it with dismay, but they should not pour out upon it imprecation and abuse. If they had not abandoned all principle, and given themselves up entirely to Blaincism, the Prohibition party would be scarcely more formidable now than it was in 1872, 1876, and 1880.

DESCRIPTIVE NAMES.

We have perceived with regret from time to time that our practice of giving to several public men the names by which they are best known to all their friends and acquaintances, and by which they are invariably spoken of in the circles which they adorn, is giving them more or less dissatisfaction. Our estimable friend "Tom" Platt, for instance, showed, in an interesting interview in the *Tribune* on Friday, that he is extremely dissatisfied because he is known and mentioned among Mugwumps by the name by which he is known and mentioned among Republicans, and intimates that this is one reason why he and other "genuine Republicans" always, when they find out what Mugwumps want, "decide to do the opposite." We cannot help thinking ourselves that this policy is hardly worthy of a statesman of "Tom" Platt's standing, for if followed persistently, it must certainly occasionally place him in positions of great perplexity. He is too much of a man to play pig to the Mugwump's Irishman—for he has doubtless heard of the Irishman who directed the course of an erratic pig by pulling it by the tail in the direction opposite to that which he wished it to follow. We are, of course, interested to a greater or less extent in "Tom's" movements, but we should never think of controlling them by any species of caudal traction. We like to see him follow the promptings of his own nature, and now that we know he will not be true to himself if we let him know what we should like, we promise to keep our wishes about "genuine Republicans" as private as possible.

But there is one point on which we cannot accommodate him. We cannot relinquish our practice of calling him "Tom." He can never be to us the "Honorable Thomas C. Platt," or even "Thomas Platt," first, because nobody who knows and loves him ever calls him anything but "Tom Platt"; and secondly, because these familiar names which we use in the *Nation* in speaking of various public men, are not only their real names, but they are descriptive terms—that is, they not only designate particular individuals, but they connote certain traits of character. In fact, among the politicians of whom we are in the habit of speaking as Mikes, Jakes, Tims, and Barneys, Michael, Jacob, Timothy, and Bernard are, it is true, the names given them by their unfortunate godfathers and godmothers in baptism, and under which they are indicted or bailed; but to their friends and associates they are titles of courtesy, such as are in England given to the sons of dukes, earls, and marquises, rather than names in the ordinary sense of the term. If any friend of "Tom" Platt, or "Barney" Biglin, or "Bill" Chandler were suddenly to call him Mr. Platt, Mr. Biglin, or Mr. Chandler, it would be at once inferred by the bystanders that a coolness of some kind had grown up between them, or that their relations had in some way undergone a serious change, or that, in short, to the friend, Mr. Platt or Mr. Chandler was not the same person as Tom Platt or Bill Chandler.

Our second reason is, however, the more important. That the familiar name of a prominent man, or indeed any kind of man—that is, the one by which he is generally known—contains, as we have said, a description of character, is one of the most familiar facts of daily life. No cold, or proud, or haughty, or serious, or reserved, or punctilious, or studious man was ever known as Tom, Dick, or Harry, Mike, Jake, or Barney. The bearers of these appellations always, or almost always, are in the category popularly known as "Hail-fellows, well met." They are the men whom you slap on the back, punch in the ribs, and around whose neck you put your arm, with whom you share a bed, from whom you borrow or to whom you lend trousers, shirts, collars, or pocket-handkerchiefs, whom you can hardly look at without wishing to "take a drink," to whom you can at any time lay bare a scheme of doubtful propriety in love, politics, or business, with the full assurance of tender sympathy, and whom you always convince in argument by "laying two to one" on the soundness of your contention.

We do not mean to say by any means that this is a description of all Toms, Dicks, and Harrys, Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys; but assuredly nobody who answers to it was ever known except as a Tom, Dick, or Harry, Mike, Jake, or Barney. Nor do we mean to say that all Toms or Dicks are really confiding, simple-minded, devil-may-care persons. On the contrary, they often conceal a considerable amount of guile under a very hearty, impetuous, and harebrained exterior, which has a very saddening effect on the social philosopher. Any one, for instance, who acted on the supposition that "Tom" Platt was a typical Tom, or "Bill" Chandler a typical Bill—that is, a rash, candid, impulsive, generous, nobody's-enemy-but-his-own sort of man—would be cruelly deceived. What we maintain is simply that there is a certain general external resemblance between all members of the class—an outward softness and good nature, and familiarity, an absence of airs, or "frills," or "dignity of tone," which puts the plain man at his ease, and makes him feel that he is in the presence of a real son of Adam, a creature familiar with all the minor weaknesses, at least, of our race, and far from too exacting in the matter of virtue or propriety.

This being our position, it may be imagined with what surprise, mingled with pain, we have from time to time observed expressions of irritation or disgust from the various members of the class over our habit of speaking of them in our columns by the names by which they are universally known—names which, if tested by the rule of Catholic orthodoxy—"quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus"—must be considered correctness itself. Under this rule, in fact, the use of such expressions as "Mr. Chandler," or "Honorable William E. Chandler," meaning thereby "Bill" Chandler of New Hampshire, would be a gross impropriety. To speak of our local Boys, Jake, Barney, Clint, Steve, Sol, and Johnny, by any other names would not be simply improper, but misleading. They are the only appellations by which they are known in the sphere in which they shine—politics. In their own homes they may possibly treat these appellations as what the French call "war names," and lay them aside in the recesses of their domesticity. But into these sacred precincts we do not follow them. To us they are simply statesmen actively engaged in making places for themselves in history. As husbands or fathers we know nothing of them. To us, as to the whole population of this great city, they are Boys, and must always be Boys, with all that the name implies.

COÖPERATION AND ITS PRACTICAL DIFFICULTIES.

It is a common belief that there is a large amount of wealth appropriated by capitalists and employers of labor without corresponding service to society; that it is the fault of the machinery of distribution which enables them to do so, and that, by proper alterations in this machinery, the workmen can obtain a large share of this surplus wealth, and add greatly to their comfort and well-

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being. This idea is not confined to Socialists or radical labor leaders. It is held, more or less vaguely, by a large part of the community; and this fact gives strength and countenance to a great many schemes of reform which fail to meet expectation when brought to the test of practice.

Of all such schemes, the most promising has been that which is known under the somewhat indefinite name of coöperation. It is a plan which has undeniable merits. It tends to reduce the antagonism of classes, to educate the workman in habits of forethought, and to give him self-respect and independence. Men like John Stuart Mill have looked forward to its application with the highest hopes. It is of great interest to compare these expectations with the actual result. This we are now able to do. The Johns Hopkins University, as our readers are aware, has recently published a series of studies on coöperation in different parts of the United States, by men like E. W. Bemis, Albert Shaw, and C. H. Shinn, which are now collected into a single volume. As a contribution to industrial history, this book is of the very highest value. It gives us a sufficiently broad basis of fact to judge of the conditions under which coöperation will succeed or fail.

What is coöperation? Holyoake has defined it as "an industrial scheme for delivering the public from the conspiracy of capitalists, traders, or manufacturers, who would make the laborer work for the least and the consumer pay the most for whatever he needs of money, machines, or merchandise." This definition, it will be observed, assumes that the capitalists have "conspired" to accumulate unjust profits, and is intended to cover almost any scheme for redistributing them. Practically, the name is applied to three distinct things:

(1.) An arrangement by which the consumers manage the business and divide the profits—distributive coöperation.

(2.) An arrangement by which the employees choose those who are to manage the business—productive coöperation.

(3.) An arrangement by which the employees participate in the profits of the business—profit-sharing.

The conditions which decide the success or failure of an experiment in distributive cooperation are comparatively simple. Such an enterprise has the advantage of being fairly sure of its custom; it can therefore dispense with wasteful advertising and still more wasteful credit. If managed with the same ability as an old-fashioned store, these things should give it an advantage. In England the conditions were such as to give that advantage. Old trade methods were so bad that coöperative stores were able to sell cheaper. In America such instances of success were exceptions. The 500 councils of the Sovereigns of Industry, established a dozen years ago, have left but few survivals. The Patrons of Husbandry have fared better; but even here the percentage of failure was very great. It is the same story everywhere: the men to whom the funds were intrusted were found wanting in the necessary ability or character.

The cases of productive coöperation and of profit-sharing are more complicated. It may readily happen that the feeling of independence in the one case, or of personal interest in the other, is an actual source of added efficiency. This is the testimony of some who have tried it. Anything which thus increases the efficiency of the work, especially if it tends to prevent strikes, is a powerful source of advantage to all parties concerned. Unfortunately, the experience of the Brewsters in 1872 showed that the system of profit-sharing did not prevent strikes. There are few instances of good results to offset this signal failure. Only one case—that of the Pillsbury Mills at Minneapolis—can be described as a distinct and continuous success. Most manufacturers have found that loyalty and efficiency on the part of their hands can better be secured by personal consideration, steadiness of employment, or promotion, than by a half-understood system of supplementary dividends. The more complicated an industry is, the more fully does the truth of this statement appear.

But what of productive coöperation on the part of the hands themselves, where they choose their own managers, with or without a system of profit-sharing? This has been more frequently tried, with some marked instances of success, particularly among the shoemakers of Massachusetts and the coopers of Minneapolis. It is subject to two dangers. It is a question whether the operatives will choose as good a manager as the stockholders of a corporation; and it is also a question whether he can enforce as good discipline among those on whom he depends for his place. The first point is the more serious of the two. It is often hard for workmen to realize the value of the services of a responsible and efficient manager. They are not willing to pay for them; and this false economy too often wastes many times the money which it saves. The industries which lend themselves to productive coöperation are those of comparatively simple character, where the connection between the efficiency of the labor and its results is most obvious, and where the necessities for organizing power and speculative foresight are reduced to a minimum. But the importance of such industries is growing every day relatively less.

We have thus far considered coöperation solely from the standpoint of efficiency and economy as a matter of business. There are certain other things to be taken into account, especially its work as an educator. As far as it teaches workmen about the responsibilities and use of property, it has a most powerful influence for good upon them and upon the community. As far as it leads them to become possessors of property, the result is still more noticeable. The success of the building associations and coöperative banks has been largely due to this fact. But this very success is fatal to the pretensions of those who advocate the coöperative principle for its own sake. It is not by altering the machinery of distribution that it succeeds, so much as by educating men to take advantage of the existing machinery.

There are three forms of coöperation in which the percentage of success has been large—building associations, creameries, and mutual-insurance companies. The first leads its members to become property-owners; the second and third are directed by men who already own property. The success in these cases, so far from proving that the direction of industry should be taken out of the hands of capital, proves that the owners of capital are competent to direct it. Success here, contrasted with the percentage of failure elsewhere, shows the large importance of having responsible men in control, and the relatively small importance of any particular form of machinery of distribution. It is not new methods of distribution that we want, but education in the best and most efficient use of our powers. It is not as a machine, but as an educational force, that coöperation seems to promise success—not because it will enable leaders of labor to become leaders of industry, but because, as soon as those leaders are tried in the latter capacity, they are subjected to a test which only the fittest can survive.

SCHOLARSHIPS OPEN TO WOMEN AND GIRLS IN ENGLAND.

THE growth of the modern English system of scholarships in aid of the higher education of girls dates from 1853, in which year Queen's College, London, was incorporated by royal charter, and the body of professors, out of their private means, founded eight "perpetual" scholarships. About the same date senior scholarships for girls were provided out of the Reid Trust, created by Mrs. Reid, founder of Bedford College, London. As years went on, further pecuniary assistance was given to the higher education of girls; but it is only during the last eighteen years, *i. e.*, since women have obtained a participation in the advantages of university education, that the great development of the system of scholarships has taken place. There are now not only a large number of scholarships designed for women, but also many for which women may compete on equal terms with men. With respect to each kind our readers will want to know something as to annual value, period of tenure, the colleges at which and the conditions under which they may be held; and, in the case of scholarships derived from endowments, what means have been adopted by the founders to secure the ends desired. Estimating a scholarship of £50 per annum tenable for three years as being worth £150 in the year in which it is awarded—and excluding from our consideration the numerous scholarships for the encouragement of music and the fine arts—we find that in different ways a total of £6,500 is given annually in England in scholarships and exhibitions for women and senior girls. Of this about a third is interest derived from endowments; actually a fourth of the whole is drawn from the surplus revenues of Girton and Newnham Colleges, in scholarships tenable at these colleges; a fifth is given annually by the London City Companies, and the rest is due to the liberality of individuals able to subscribe towards scholarships to run a certain number of years.

Girton College, Cambridge, though it has only three perpetual scholarships, is by far the richest college as regards the value of scholarships, as much as £2,000 being given annually

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on the results of its entrance examinations alone, and about £450 more in connection with local university examinations. All scholarships to Girton College are tenable for three years, the length of the college course. Newnham College ranks next, and accounts for £1,500 a year. Mrs. Sidgwick writes: "Our scholarships are rather variable in total amount, and in the way they are awarded, and in the length of time they are held; sometimes scholarships being gained by students in the middle of their course, sometimes small ones superseded by larger ones, etc." It is a notable difference that while at Newnham a great deal of pecuniary help is given in the way of small exhibitions to students who are already in residence, and whom it is thought specially important to assist, with the Girton authorities it is a principle that whatever is to be done in aid of a student shall be fixed at the time she enters on residence, in order that her mind may not be disturbed during her course by uncertainty on this head.

Most of the scholarships in the gift of the Newnham Council, whether derived from foundations or given by the London City Companies or by Newnham College itself, are awarded on the results of the Cambridge Higher Local Examination; the performance, if any, in the preceding year being taken into account. The halls at Oxford give their scholarships in connection with their respective entrance examinations—Somerville Hall about £400 annually, and Lady Margaret's Hall £200; these halls have as yet no foundation scholarships. The old non-residential institutions, Queen's College and Bedford College, London, award in scholarships £330 and £460 per annum respectively. The average value of the scholarships being less than in the case of residential colleges, a proportionally greater number of scholarships can be given with the same annual expenditure. These two colleges are the richest of all in "perpetual" scholarships, Queen's College heading the list with eleven. Scholarships to the value of £270 are attainable by pupils of the North London Collegiate School for Girls, this sum including the "leaving" scholarship given by the Clothworkers' Company, and the Platt scholarships, tenable either in the school or at any college approved by the Governors.

Then there are the Gilchrist scholarships, those with which we are here concerned having a total annual value of £415: one of these may be held either at Girton or Newnham; the others are tenable at any "collegiate institution approved by the Gilchrist trustees." There are also the Harkniss scholarship for the encouragement of geology, and scholarships at South Kensington to promote the pursuit of natural science. The Catherine Winkworth scholarships at University College, Bristol, are noteworthy as the only examples of scholarships for women only which are in the gift of the council of a mixed college. The newly founded St. Dunstan's Exhibitions of £100 a year for three years are derived from an ancient trust; three are to be given annually to girls under nineteen, and resident within the metropolitan area. These exhibitions are for the purpose of enabling the holders to fit themselves for any profession, and are tenable at any place of higher education approved by the Governors.

As to the scholarships for which women may compete on equal terms with men, they are tenable at the following colleges:

At University College, London	£700 per annum
At the Colleges of the City and Guilds of London Institute	620 per annum
At Yorkshire College, Leeds	450 per annum
At Owens College, Manchester	270 per annum
At University College, Liverpool	£270 per annum
At University College, Bristol	240 per annum
At Mason College, Birmingham	170 per annum
At University College, Nottingham	14 per annum

—in all, over £2,700 per annum in scholarships for one and two years. The above-mentioned provincial colleges mostly give young men and women equal chances.

With respect to the conditions imposed on the holders of scholarships, great variety prevails, but the points most commonly taken into consideration are: (1) Need of assistance, (2) proficiency, and (3) course of study intended.

(1.) In many cases exhibitions are only awarded to those who are unable to defray the cost of higher education. The Girton Council, however, prefers the plan (which experience proves to be judicious) of advertising as the value of a scholarship a less sum than is really available, together with a notice that the scholarship will be augmented in the case of a successful candidate who could not otherwise afford to accept it.

(2.) A common stipulation is, that a scholarship will not be awarded unless due proficiency is shown; in the advertisement of the St. Dunstan scholarships it is stated that the award may be determined either by aggregate merit or by special proficiency in given subjects. In the case of some scholarships there is a provision that if there are candidates of almost equal merit, the scholarship may be divided between them.

(3.) A common condition is, that the holder of a scholarship shall read for honors (subject sometimes specified), and in addition to this the Gilchrist trustees require, before the payment of each instalment of the scholarship, a certificate of the diligence and satisfactory conduct of the scholar. The St. Dunstan Governors require of a candidate recommended for an exhibition a definite statement of the course of study she desires to pursue in preparation for the profession which she selects. The Council of Newnham College stands alone in requiring to be satisfied, before awarding a scholarship, that the candidate's state of health is not such as to prevent her from profiting by a systematic course of study.

Founders of "perpetual" scholarships have adopted some one of the three following methods to secure their ends: (*a*) To establish a trust fund for scholarships to be administered by a body of trustees independent of any college; such trusts are the Gilchrist Trust, the Reid Trust. (*b*) To establish a trust for scholarships tenable at a certain college to be administered by the authorities of that college as trustees. (*c*) To pay the principal into the general fund of some selected college, in order that the college authorities may establish in perpetuity a scholarship under given conditions. The last of these plans is generally chosen when it is desired to help a young institution which perhaps wants money for building; also, in making small foundations, it saves the creation of special machinery. This latter advantage can be claimed for the second plan, whereas the first is that best calculated to promote education in general, since the trustees can at their discretion make any scholarship tenable at a particular college, or leave the scholar free to choose any genuine place of higher education, and can, when required, vary the conditions under which any scholarship is held.

With respect to the class of women and girls availing themselves of scholarships, it is mostly those who would without scholarships be unable to afford the cost of higher education; most come from the professional class, some from that of upper tradesmen; almost all who take scholarships look forward to earning their own living. To the best of our knowledge, no case has occurred in the women's colleges in which a wealthy student has won and accepted a scholarship. Certainly wealthy students are comparatively rare among women, but it is also noticeable that there is, up to the present time, a better tone among women than among men undergraduates in the older universities with respect to scholarships: the women do not look upon a scholarship in the light of a prize won, or a reward for something already accomplished, but regard it as a means to help them to still higher work—trust money that they are bound in honor to turn to good account.

An account of the scholarship system in England would not be complete without mention of the strong opinion entertained by one of the leaders in the cause of women's education, Miss Beale of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, as to the danger incurred in founding scholarships tenable at particular colleges. Miss Beale accuses schools and colleges, in many cases, of "seeking to establish a reputation by securing exceptional talent," or by appropriating the honor of the training given by the labors of others. Miss Beale speaks of such scholarships as "neither more nor less than bribes to parents to consider *not* what is intrinsically the best place of education, but to send their boys or girls to special places," and has herself consistently refused offers of foundation scholarships in connection with her college. The attachment of scholarships for boys to particular colleges has notoriously produced the evils Miss Beale deplores, and when we read in the report of an educational institution for women a plea for the gift of scholarships on the ground that "these are needed to bring students of ability, as well as those who cannot come without assistance," we are impressed with the importance of Miss Beale's warning. That scholarships are urgently required in aid of those who without such help could not afford the cost of higher education is a fact that calls for recognition; and it might be Quixotic to expect of colleges giving scholarships out of their surplus revenues that they should make these tenable at any college for higher education of acknowledged merit. Surely, however, individual founders of scholarships might, in general, adopt the third mode of foundation described, and thus realize to the best of their ability the earnest hope expressed by Miss Beale, that those who want to do real good with their money will give it to enable the recipients to obtain the best education *wherever* it is to be found.

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT AND GOVERNMENT BY PARLIAMENT.—I.

LONDON, May 25.

"WE are no longer quarrelling about the character or about the conduct of men, or the tenor of measures; but we are grown out of humor with the English Constitution itself." These words formed part of a speech on Parliamentary reform long before the French Revolution; they were adopted just sixty years ago by Macaulay as a text on which to deliver a homily about the changed feeling with which the generation who carried the great Reform Bill regarded the unreformed Parliament. The words of the Whig statesman and the comment of the Whig reviewer possessed in 1828 a real significance; they signified that the optimistic belief in the perfection of English institutions which is permanently recorded in the pages of Blackstone, had passed away; that the Consti-

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tution was no longer above criticism; that there were innovators daring enough to believe that the House of Commons itself needed reform. Language which had a real meaning to the men of 1828 has a real meaning for the men of 1888, but its significance has, oddly enough, been altered by the lapse of time. Burke, Hallam, and Macaulay all recognize a change in the opinion of mankind. But readers who to-day study the words and note the tone of these writers are surprised to find how small was the change which to our fathers seemed so important. The English Constitution had become the subject of criticism, but the critics themselves, the Radicals and innovators—the Democrats, as they often called themselves—of 1828 did not let their criticism go beyond demand for reform. They differed as to the degree in which the popular element in the House of Commons should be strengthened. No one of them doubted that, to increase the power of the representative chamber, to give greater weight to the people, to "make Parliamentary government more Parliamentary" (if such a phrase might be allowed), would insure to England a perfect constitution. Still less did any Whig or Radical doubt that to extend English constitutionalism throughout the civilized world was equivalent to extending the blessings of civilization and justice. Even the Chartists, the men outside the respectable world of politics, when, forty years ago, they attempted, feebly enough, something like revolution, did not demand and probably did not desire democratic changes much beyond reforms which have been carried without disturbing the wealth and the conservatism of England.

Parliament has been made democratic. Parliamentary government of one kind or another, modelled mainly on the British type, has been established throughout the civilized States of Europe, and now the fact is gradually becoming visible to any thoughtful observer of current events and of the flow of opinion, that, in one country after another, doubts are entertained as to the merits of that very Parliamentary government which it has been the pride of Englishmen to create, and the object of Continental Liberals to imitate. The combined strength and weakness of French genius have made France for a long time the representative of the sentiment prevalent at crises of European history: the importance of the French Revolution is, that France gave violent, exaggerated, ill-judged expression to emotions and beliefs which found an echo in every civilized land. It is noticeable, therefore, that in France the Democracy begins to doubt the virtues of Parliamentary rule. Boulanger and Boulangism may, likely enough, pass away like the last fashion in dress. But if Gen. Boulanger is a mere charlatan (which is not quite certain), the essence of a charlatan is his skill in appealing to the sympathies of his audience; and the very consideration that the would-be dictator aims at catching the wind of popular favor, makes it probable that his words and acts show us which way the wind blows to-day and the gale may blow to-morrow. The one thing in which Boulanger is consistent is in systematic attack on the authority of the Assembly. He revives or carries on the Imperial hatred of Parliamentarianism, and in taking this course he appeals to the strength of the Empire. No sensible man doubts that thousands of Frenchmen who disliked the Napoleonic despotism were glad that the Prince-President put an end to the conflicts and the existence of the Assembly. They wished, probably, to have a representative body which should check the excesses of the Government. But they certainly did not wish that Parliament should govern.

French caprice, it may be said, hardly deserves to be noticed, save as a mark of the inherent mutability of French character. The sentiment, however, which is at this moment exciting the anxiety of every bona-fide Republican in France prevails under different names in countries not swayed by French sympathies. Neither Prince Bismarck, nor the Emperor, nor the German people show any ardent belief in government by Parliament as it exists in England. Bismarck's career is, in this as in other points of view, most noteworthy. He never, even at the height of his feud with the Prussian Assembly, either attempted or, it is fair to suppose, contemplated a *coup d'état* which should make the Crown despotic. For Prussia, as for Germany, he acknowledged that representative institutions were necessary, though the necessity was an unpleasant one. On the other hand, he was determined that if Parliament existed, Parliament should not be supreme. To draw a distinction to which I shall again recur, he acquiesced in "Parliamentary government," *i. e.*, in a constitution under which the voice of a representative legislature should be heard and listened to; he opposed "government by Parliament," *i. e.*, the creation of a constitution under which the representative assembly should be the supreme body in the State. How far Bismarck's ideas will survive him, how far it is possible that an elected assembly should legislate and not govern, are questions on which it is unnecessary, for my present purpose, either to form or to give an opinion. What I note is the existence, not the soundness, of Bismarckian ideas. I emphasize the fact that Bismarck and Boulanger, who probably agree on no other matter whatever, are at one in deprecating government by an elected assembly.

The perfect success of Swiss statesmanship has produced one bad result: it has diverted public attention from the instructive lessons to be gathered from Swiss politics. Yet a cursory observation of the institutions which exist and the sentiments which prevail throughout the Confederation, shows that Democrats who value freedom and good government need not necessarily rate high the authority of Parliament. The Constitution of the Federal Executive and the spreading influence of the Referendum (which is in Switzerland an institution of national growth) are checks placed upon the power of the Assembly. They are checks which prevent the growth of that form of government by Parliament which exists in England; and no one can take up the works of Swiss writers without perceiving that there are democratic thinkers and sincere Republicans who look upon Parliamentarianism with as little favor as a Boulangist or a Prussian official. It were ridiculous for me to address readers of the *Nation* on American politics, but while the position of the President and his Cabinet is absolutely inconsistent with the existence of a constitution really resembling that of modern England, an outsider may draw from the constitutions of different States throughout the Union the inference (though probably, like most conclusions drawn by an outsider, it is erroneous) that popular confidence in representative assemblies is not on the increase. In England, it is true, no one as yet denounces Parliamentarianism. The term is unknown. Yet there are signs that the old absolute confidence in Parliamentary government is gone, and that a condition of things might easily arise under which Democrats would wish to curb the authority of the House of Commons.

What are the causes or the justification of this declining confidence in Parliamentary constitutionalism, and how far they are likely to be permanent, I may consider in another letter. Meanwhile, one fact deserves attention: the blessings which the English Constitution did in the last century really confer upon England, or which England at any rate enjoyed under her Parliamentary institutions, have been obtained by all nations who have been able bona fide to adopt representative government. Under the unreformed Parliament, England enjoyed three blessings which made her the envy of Continental nations. The policy of the state, both at home and abroad, was, not immediately or directly, but yet in the long run and by indirect means, determined by the will of the nation, or at any rate by the will of the only part of the people who felt a keen interest in politics. Mistakes enough were made, both in domestic and in foreign affairs, but the mistakes were the mistakes of the British people. The war with the American colonies, the opposition to Catholic emancipation, the foreign policy of Chatham, and the foreign policy of his son, met with the approval of the country. Arbitrary power, as it existed in France, Germany, or Italy, was unknown; if the law was severe or impolitic, every man was ruled by law and not by despotic caprice. As great freedom of discussion was allowed as any large body of men either demanded or desired. Obedience by the Government to the will of the nation; enjoyment of personal liberty under the protection of the law; as perfect freedom of discussion as the best sentiment of the age allowed—these were the benefits which the English Constitution conferred upon Englishmen, and these are precisely the blessings enjoyed by the citizens of every European state which has obtained Parliamentary government. In France, in Germany, in Italy, or in Switzerland, the ultimate sovereignty of the people may or may not be acknowledged in words, but it exists in reality. In none of these countries can the most powerful ruler perform acts of arbitrary tyranny which, not much more than a century ago, were allowable to the feeblest of Italian dukes or German princes. Throughout every civilized Continental state, a freedom of discussion exists which the most liberal thinkers among George III.'s statesmen might have thought excessive. Representative institutions have produced all the good results which the enthusiasm of Burke and the criticism of Montesquieu ascribed to the English Constitution.

AN OBSERVER.

THE MARQUIS DE TESSÉ.

PARIS, May 18, 1888.

THE Comte de Rambuteau has just published the letters of the Maréchal de Tessé to the Duchess of Burgundy, to the Princesse des Ursins, to Mme. de Maintenon, and to others. These names sufficiently draw attention to his publication. The name of the Marshal de Tessé himself has fallen into comparative obscurity, somewhat unjustly; but history cannot digest everything, and, after two centuries, very few names remain in the light, like the snow-peaks which are still colored by the setting sun when all the inferior peaks and the valleys are lost in darkness.

M. de Rambuteau boldly asks Saint-Simon to present his hero to the public, though Saint-Simon paints his portraits with dark colors:

"M. Tessé," says Saint-Simon, "was a Manceau [an inhabitant of Le Mans is so called] worthy of his country, shrewd, clever, marvellously ungrateful, hypocritical, and scheming, as was strongly exemplified in the case of Catinat, to whom he owed his fortune, and on the ruin of whom he afterwards rose. He had

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the jargon of the ladies, and a little the jargon of the courtier, quite the air of the seigneur and of the great world, without, however, spending much. Really ignorant of war, as he had never taken part in one, he found himself by chance everywhere, near every action and every siege. With an air of modesty, he was bold in making himself valued and in insinuating what was useful to him; always on good terms with whoever had credit with the ministers, especially with the powerful valets. His sweetness and politeness made people love him; his commonplaceness and shallowness (for you soon saw to the bottom of him) made him despised. Sometimes an amusing talker, anon flat and tiresome, always full of views and of calculations, he gained advantage by his baseness with Marshals Villeroi, Vendôme, Vaudemont, and by his suppleness with Chamillard, Torcy, Pontchartrain, Desmarets, and especially with Mme. de Maintenon, to whom he was introduced by Chamillard, on one side, by the Duchess of Burgundy on the other. He took a marvellous advantage of the marriage of this Princess, which he had concluded, and of the intimacy which the tenderness of the King and of Mme. de Maintenon had procured him with her; the Duchess prided herself on loving and on serving Tessé, as having been the instrument of her own happiness."

This is a cruel picture. "Will you," says M. de Rambuteau, "shut my book on it? You would be wrong; say to yourself rather that if Tessé found his *bâton de maréchal* in his inkstand rather than in his *giberne*, there must be something in his letters. Taste them. If I am not mistaken, you will go to the end." M. de Rambuteau had found letters of Tessé in all our public archives and in some private archives; he also was able to see the copy of all the Marshal's letters, in eleven volumes, which is in the possession of M. de Barthélemy.

Tessé was the son of René de Froulai, Count of Tessé, and of Madeleine de Beaumanoir. He was born at Le Mans in 1648; in 1669 we find him in the army, as aide-de-camp of Marshal Créqui. In 1678 he was at the battle of Rheinfelden, and he gives an account of it to Louvois, his protector. In 1685 he accompanied the dragoons in the expeditions which followed the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; his sentiments are seen in this letter written to Louvois from Orange: "The city is converted, the principality has taken the same resolution, and the gentlemen of the Parlement, who wished to distinguish themselves by a little more obstinacy, followed suit twenty-four hours afterwards. All this took place *quietly, without any violence* or disorder. Only the minister Chambrun, the patriarch of the country, continues to be deaf to reason; as for the President, who aspired to the honors of martyrdom, he, as well as the rest of the Parlement, would have become Mohammedan if I had wished it." In 1688 he was employed, under the orders of Montclar and Duras, in the devastation of the Palatinate. M. Rousset, in his 'History of Louvois,' cites these lines of Tessé's written to Louvois from Heidelberg:

"I did not think that it would cost a man so much to undertake himself the burning of a city peopled like Orleans. You may be sure that nothing remains of the beautiful castle of Heidelberg. . . . Thank God! nothing tempted me; I only put aside the family portraits of the Palatine house, namely, the fathers, mothers, grandmothers, and relatives of Madame [the daughter of the late Elector], with the intention, if you order me or advise me to do so, to present them to her, after she has somewhat recovered from the devastation of her native country."

In 1693 Marshal Catinat wished to enter into negotiations with the Duke of Savoy. He sent Tessé in disguise to Turin, where he conferred for several days with Victor-Amadeus II. and his Minister, the Marquis of St. Thomas. They prepared together a treaty which yielded the country of Nice to the Duke, ended a war which was ruinous for him, and assured the marriage of the Duke's daughter with the Duke of Burgundy. This was a great triumph for Victor-Amadeus; it was also a great victory for Tessé, who had revealed himself an excellent diplomat. Louis XIV. was satisfied, and Tessé received the felicitations of all the Court. He remained at the French Court the confidential friend of the charming young Princess of Savoy, a mere child when she arrived in France, but very agreeable, very clever and intelligent. It is well known that the Duchess of Burgundy entirely won the favor of Louis XIV., as well as of Mme. de Maintenon; she was treated by them like a spoiled child, and her natural gayety proved very enlivening to the King, who had reached an age which made him, to use the words of Mme. de Maintenon, "peu amusable."

In 1703 Tessé was appointed Marshal of France under circumstances which are thus related by the Abbé de Choisy:

"The King was working at Mme. de Maintenon's with M. de Chamillart, and was making a list of the marshals of France who were to be declared the next day. The Duchess of Burgundy, looking over the King's shoulder, saw that Tessé was not on the list. She had been jumping and dancing and laughing as usual, when she suddenly began to cry. The King wished to know the reason of it. 'Oh, sire, you dishonor the man to whom I owe the honor of belonging to you, who has made me what I am!' The King seemed vexed that his secret should have been discovered, and in his anger he tore up his list. The marshals were only appointed a year afterwards; instead of four there were ten, so that Tessé should have a place."

The letters of Tessé to the Duchess of Burgundy, which are now published, were written between the years 1701 and 1711. During that period Tessé had first returned to Italy, and had renewed a treaty of alliance with Victor-Amadeus. He had foreseen that this ally could not be much trusted. "He will never be an easy ally, and his fidelity will always be doubtful, whatever precautions we may take with him." Tessé went afterwards to Venice, on a diplomatic mission; and, having accomplished it, he took his part in the operations of the war of succession under Catinat. He protected the States of the Duke of Mantua, who was our ally, and spent the winter of 1707 in Mantua, which was blockaded by the imperial troops. We find him in 1704 in Spain, where he took the command of the French army. On his way he stopped, with the permission of the King, at Toulouse, where he saw the Princesse des Ursins, who had been dismissed from the Spanish Court; he never ceased afterwards to work for her return to Spain.

I confess to having been disappointed in the letters of Tessé to the Duchess of Burgundy. I should say that they were written for a child, if they were not sometimes almost grossly indecent. They were not worth publishing, even if they sometimes amused the person for whom they were written. They are all very much in this style: "I shall tell you nothing of our war; the armies are always in the same situation, and, for want of a better occupation, we amuse ourselves by assassinating each other and firing at each other. These military amusements are not worth seeing or talking about, and I have only the honor to write to you to make you remember your ancient servitor," etc. He never gives any details on political or military questions, and in this he showed much discretion; but his letters to the Duchess, full of insignificant details on dress, ladies-in-waiting, the fashions of foreign courts, seem to us really insipid. The Duchess of Burgundy may have been interested to learn that her friend, "Mlle. de Salle, who has lost that name to take the name of Comtesse de Grésy, has not grown handsomer; her waist is still the same, but her nose has grown bigger"—but we do not much care about this sort of information. Some of the letters are like pages of a guide-book: "The richest women in Geneva are dressed like simple *bourgeoises;* all the bourgeois wear a sword," etc.

The diplomatic despatches of Marshal Tessé are in a very different style. Though he is no Saint-Simon, he can paint a character. His portrait of Victor-Amadeus, the father of the Duchess of Burgundy, is truly excellent; so is his portrait of Philip V., which he made for Louis XIV. himself:

"The King, your grandson, is an almost incomprehensible prince; your Court, and perhaps your Majesty yourself, do not render him the justice which he deserves for his intelligence and his good sense. I dare to say that he has a great deal of it—more than people believe, and more than he believes himself. Too much natural backwardness, a slowness, if not laziness of speech, too scrupulous a belief that the smallest mistake of a king is a crime, by making it difficult for him to will and to decide, spoils what good there is in this first impulse."

Tessé found in Spain difficulties of every kind; he constantly had to complain of the King's Council, the *Despacho;* he complained of the King, who had no wish but to please the Queen. His first military operation was the siege of Gibraltar; the enterprise had soon to be abandoned. In 1706 he received from Louis XIV. orders to besiege Barcelona, where the Archduke had shut himself up. He pushed on the siege with some vigor, when Lord Peterborough arrived with a fleet and dispersed the squadron of the Comte de Toulouse. The siege had to be raised.

The year after, Tessé was sent to Savoy. The Duke had declared against France and the French frontier was threatened. Tessé does not seem to have shown much vigor in his campaign, and he lost Susa, an important place, one of the keys of the Alps. This was a great blow to Louis XIV., who never afterwards confided any military operation to the unfortunate Marshal. Tessé was still employed in some diplomatic missions. He returned to Spain when Philip V. abdicated in favor of his son. He gives a very good account in his despatches of the extraordinary state of the Spanish Court under the short reign of Louis I. When the young King died of the small-pox, Philip V. was obliged to assume power again, and the Marshal, who was himself much broken by age, obtained permission to retire from the service. He received the Golden Fleece on his departure, and, a few months after his return to France, he died May 30, 1725, in a little house which he had hired of the Camaldules.

Correspondence.

DR. VON HOLST AND HIS CRITIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of March 15, "N. Z." is confident of having found in an article published by me in Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* a good example for proving the old thesis, "How difficult it is for any foreigner to understand perfectly the institutions under which we live." To refute "N. Z.'s" criticisms I should have to ask the *Nation* to publish a translation of my whole article. This not being possible, I beg to state to "N. Z." through your columns, with all due respect, that in this case at least I have not failed to understand your institutions, but he has entirely failed to understand my article. I am bold enough to hope that no intelligent

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American who has read my former writings will think it possible that I am really groping in such midnight darkness as I am made to do by "N. Z.," and that, too, in fundamental questions. At all events, I am not humble enough to receive any enlightenment from "N. Z.," as long as he proves himself unable to distinguish between a *fact* and the *theory of the law*, as he has done with regard to the President's share in the legislative power.

If he carefully reads once more the reasons I give for believing that the Senate will never be shorn of its power as the House of Lords has been, he may yet learn from the foreigner why "the fate which has overtaken the Electoral College" cannot teach us anything whatever as to this question. The statement that, in my opinion, "Senators rather than members of the lower house are regarded by the masses of the people as their genuine representatives," is so far from giving a correct view of what I really have said, that I should be forced to consider it a wilful misrepresentation, if the whole letter did not show, as I stated before, that "N. Z." has been absolutely unable to understand my article. If, as I am willing to assume, a defective knowledge of German is the reason of that, he might have been more charitable in judging my failing to correctly understand an idiomatic English expression. That is the only point as to which I probably must acknowledge his criticism to be justified, although I am still at a loss to understand the "idle spectator of ground and lofty tumbling," and born Americans whom I have consulted are in the same plight. Besides, this mistake has nothing whatever to do with the correctness or incorrectness of the opinions I have expressed on the questions of constitutional law treated in the above-mentioned article.

Very respectfully, H. von Holst.

Freiburg im B., May 21, 1888.

[We fear that "N. Z." cannot take cover under his ignorance of the German; but we are surprised that any "born American" of intelligence should be unable to explain the phrase from the mountebank's programme of "ground and lofty tumbling"—that is, acrobatic feats on terra firma and in the air.—Ed. Nation.]

BLACKWELL'S GERMAN PREFIXES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your criticism of my little work on 'German Prefixes and Suffixes,' lately published by Henry Holt & Co., you bestow upon it a moderate commendation, coupled with the charge that I have literally translated "page after page" from Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Synonymen.' I submit that this is an unfair and altogether misleading statement of the facts, and in making such a statement you do me a great wrong. That I have largely drawn upon Sanders's work is true, but I have faithfully acknowledged it in my preface. But for Sanders's 'Synonymen,' his large dictionary of the language, and his 'Neue Beiträge,' as well as for Heyse's and Meyer's labors, I should probably not have attempted my own work; yet I have given so much individual thought and labor to analyzing, qualifying, amplifying, and improving, wherever possible, every definition, and illustrating by new examples every principle, that I think it fair to claim the credit of having succeeded in presenting this difficult and entangled subject in a logical order and in an easily comprehensible manner—a thing which neither Sanders nor any other man has ever done before. The purpose of my book is to clear away the rubbish, and to leave the subject of German prefixes and suffixes in a clean and definite shape. Every teacher and every student of German has felt the need of such a work as I have attempted to supply, and as such a work is found nowhere else in the world easily accessible to English-speaking persons, I am unable to see how I can be subject to censure in this matter.

Respectfully, J. S. Blackwell.

Columbia, Mo., May 26, 1888.

[We must still insist that we were within the bounds of literal and exact truth in saying of Prof. Blackwell's 'Manual' "that page after page of matter—statements, qualifications, illustrations, and all—is simply translated, with more or less of rearrangement, from Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Synonymen.'" This is true, for example, of pages 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, which make no mention of Sanders, but are, nevertheless, *taken bodily, sentence for sentence*, from his 'Wörterbuch,' pages 3-8. Our comment was, that one is not adequately prepared for that sort of thing by what he finds in the preface, in which Prof. Blackwell merely names a list of authorities from whom he has "borrowed help." In this list, to be sure, we find Sanders's 'Wörterbuch.' But does Prof. Blackwell really regard this as an entirely ingenuous account of his *modus operandi?* If so, what would be the nature of the case for which he would reserve the word *compile?*—Ed. Nation.]

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of May 31 is a clause which I venture to quote as expressing exactly the theory of Cabinet responsibility in Congress in its relation to the civil service. If any official

"wants to make it appear that his manipulations of the civil service have all had in view, not the fixing of caucuses and conventions, but the public good, he must go on the stand, papers in hand, and stand examination and cross-examination, and he must not take refuge behind 'legal evidence,' either. He must furnish us with human evidence—that is, the evidence on which men transact the ordinary business of life."

And further on you say:

"Therefore it is most desirable that the Senatorial investigation, such as is now pending in New York, into the operation of the Civil-Service Law, should be held annually. Nothing else will prevent its being evaded or nullified on a greater or less scale."

I desire to point out that the conclusion here is not at all adequate to the premise. Such a Senatorial investigation is fatally defective in many ways:

(1.) It is always looked upon as a party affair. If the majority of the committee is on the side of the Administration, its report is regarded as "whitewash"; if opposed, as political hostility.

(2.) As the use of the offices is the most effective means by which Congress can control the Executive, there is no question that that body, as a whole, is opposed to the Civil-Service Law. It may be doubted whether any committee could be made up which, as a committee—that is, without personal responsibility—would have for its sole object the pure and impartial administration of that law.

(3.) The investigation is made after the fact, and not into any one, but a series of facts, so that public attention is confused and drawn away from the main points.

(4.) It is conducted in the absence of the offending party. In the various cases the responsibility of the several members of the Cabinet and of the President is all mixed up together. No one of them is heard, or subjected to the examination or cross-examination which you justly describe as so important.

All these objections would be done away with if the Cabinet officers made their public appearance regularly in Congress. In the first place, questions would take place by individuals upon their personal responsibility which, with the answers, would soon make clear whether they were guided by party spirit or not. Then, though committees are animated by the *esprit de corps* and gain nothing by departing from it, the case is very different with an individual. An ambitious man could, like Disraeli, *make* the House and the public listen to him and force a chance to win his spurs. Again, inquiry would follow directly upon the fact, and in each individual case; and, lastly, the very person who made the appointment or removal would have to speak for himself then and there, and the responsibility would be brought home directly to the President behind them all.

It is evident that the present Civil-Service Law cannot be kept effective without a constant strain upon public opinion. Mr. Cleveland has shown by his tariff message and his vetoes that he possesses an unusual degree of courage. If he cannot stand the pressure, who can? Mr. Curtis thinks the issue more important than tariff reform, and would even go the length of limiting the President by constitutional amendment to one term, though it needs little argument to show that this would by no means necessarily produce the desired effect, while it would have other and great disadvantages. But surely the whole future of politics ought not to be given up to merely keeping the machinery of government in order, to the permanent exclusion of everything else. If that machinery is good for anything, it ought, when once organized, to go of itself. Nobody in England ever thinks now of making a political cry of the condition of the civil service. That was settled once for all thirty years ago, and is kept in order by the fact that if ministers depart from the rules, they are called to prompt and personal account. That is the way, and the only way, in which the law can be made a real and vital force in this country. G. B.

Boston, June 2, 1888.

A TARIFF OF LONGITUDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Seeing in your quotation of Mr. Mills's speech the statement that the tariff is the same in every Territory of the United States, reminds me of one of the many idiosyncrasies of the tariff humbug. Unless I am mistaken, the tariff is *not* the same at the Pacific Coast as it is at the Atlantic Coast *on sugar!* Am I right? In California the infant industry of the Sandwich Islands has to be protected by *no* tariff, while at the East the infant of the sugar States cannot sleep without the soothing syrup of the tariff. What a snare this tariff is; and how many people honestly believe they want it, when in reality they want nothing of the kind.

Respectfully, W. Bodemann.

Chicago, May 30, 1888.

A PROTECTIONIST SCARE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following precious specimen of

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tariff journalism is taken from the Philadelphia *Press* of May 25. It not only shows the desperate straits to which a protection organ is driven in these thoughtful times, but to those who accept it as truthful it presents a remarkable instance of the faith which the Ponty-Pool mill-owners have in an American "probability."

REJOICING AT THE MILLS BILL.

WELSH IRON MILLS GETTING READY TO FILL AMERICA WITH THEIR PRODUCTS.

SHARON, May 24 [Special].—An iron worker named Phillips of this city has received a cablegram from Ponty-Pool, Wales, apprising him that ten sheet mills and 130 puddling furnaces are about to start at that place, and asking him to return to take charge of one of the departments. A letter from a friend brings the information that the greatest activity prevails there over the probable passage of the Mills bill, and that it is on the strength of such a probability that mills idle for a long period are about to resume.

A REPUBLICAN.

PHILADELPHIA, May 26, 1888.

A MIXTURE OF SALTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your excellent article this week on Chili's commerce and finances, I was sorry to see the statement, following the popular idea, that the export tax was principally on "saltpetre." This article, "nitrate of potash," is not produced in South America. What you should have mentioned, and correctly, for Chili exports vast quantities of it, is "nitrate of soda," a very different article, and having a different base. The confounding of these two articles, so different in themselves and in their use, is so common an error that I am induced to call your attention to this point, in an article otherwise so true in every respect. It is amusing to find how often, outside of manufacturers, people of education and those otherwise well posted in the knowledge of raw materials, confound these two great articles of import in this country, and mention them as though they were one and the same thing. This hallucination appears even among the chemists of the Government appraisers at times, and as saltpetre pays a duty here of one cent per pound, and nitrate of soda is admitted free, it causes some perplexities in appraising the invoices at the Custom-house when one salt is mistaken for the other. WM. L. PARKER.

BOSTON, May 31, 1888.

DE LUNATICO INQUIRENDO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The feelings and ideas of that numerous class of men now banded together under the banner of "Blaine or bust," have just been brought forcibly home to me by the case of a man quite prominent in the city, and of most excellent good sense in almost everything outside of Blaine and protection. This very night, in conversation, this Mr. X. said in substance, with reference to Mr. Blaine's last letter, that this letter did not mean that Mr. Blaine would decline to be a candidate for the Presidency, but that he would run if nominated. This, of course, is equivalent to saying that Mr. Blaine does not mean what he says; but that is nothing, and does not prevent his being an eminently proper person to be elected President. Further, he, Mr. X., would much rather vote for Blaine and be defeated than to vote for several others of the Republican candidates and win. He is strongly opposed to nominating a man for whom any Mugwump might possibly be induced to vote, such a dreadful result being *ipso facto* proof that the candidate is not a good Republican, but on the contrary an object of grave suspicion. In other words, here is a presumably sane man uniting with the editor of the New York *Tribune* in an outspoken desire for a candidate whom no Mugwump can support, and for a "small and select" party into which none shall be allowed to enter unless they be devout worshippers at the shrine of the great god J. G. Blaine.

What mysterious influence can it be which produces this most remarkable state of mind? Would it not be a good plan, for the purpose of increasing our psychological knowledge, and at the same time of reducing the surplus, to induce Congress to pass a bill creating a commission of experts to inquire into the cause, development, and phenomena of "Blaineism"?

S. B. PLATNER.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, June 1, 1888.

THE METHODIST CONFERENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "E. B." displays more zeal than knowledge in his remarks upon the action of the Methodist General Conference in excluding the women delegates-elect. Their opponents admitted their eminent services in the work of the Church, but denied their right to sit as delegates, on the ground that it would have been contrary to the organic law of the Church. I believe it is a maxim among lawyers that the intent of the law-maker is the law. It was proved conclusively by those who favored the law relating to lay delegation in the Methodist Episcopal Church that it never contemplated the election of women. Every one who listened to the long and somewhat tiresome debate on the question will admit that advocates and opponents alike showed the greatest eagerness to do them justice, and there was little disposition manifested to exclude them on principle. The Conference decided to refer the question to the whole Church, and if, at the end of four years, it shall have voted in favor of their eligibility, their title to seats in the Conference of 1892 will not be questioned by anybody. This is certainly better than to admit them on a questionable title for purely sentimental reasons.

I voted for the women because I was willing to interpret the letter of the law in their behalf, and because I believe that public opinion will soon bring them in anyhow. Yet I am willing to admit that the plan adopted will in the end be better, both for the women and all other parties concerned. A LAY DELEGATE.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with your timely remarks upon the Vice-Presidency, I would offer a further suggestion as a means of increasing the dignity of that office, viz., a considerable increase in the salary now pertaining to it. The difference between the salaries of the President and Vice-President, viz., $50,000 and $8,000, would seem to be out of all proper proportion, and it undoubtedly accounts to some extent for the general disesteem in which the office of the latter is now held. A mere increase of emolument may not be the most ideal method of elevating the popular conception of an office in itself more or less undesirable; yet, in the present state of popular notions, it is a very practical one. If the salary of Vice-President were doubled, or raised to $20,000, the office would at once become an object of more consideration for men of ability and ambition; its social importance would be heightened, and it would be less apt to be made the foot-ball of nominating conventions.

In case of such a change, there would be created, it is true, a marked disparity between the respective remunerations of the presiding officer and the Senators. This, however, would be little felt as long as so large a proportion of that body are men of great wealth, which has been and is likely to continue to be the case for a long time. In view, furthermore, of the grave responsibilities and difficulties which may at any moment devolve upon the Vice-President, the proposed increment ought not to appear excessive even to the average politician, who delights in as large a number as possible of moderate salaries for the many, over the bestowal of which he may hope to exercise a beneficent control, but dislikes and mistrusts large salaries for the few, paid to secure first-rate talent over which he can have little or no power. But to the imagination of the average American the money value of most positions is held as a fair register of their importance; and of this fact advantage might be taken to assist in lifting the Vice-Presidency out of the *nocuous desuetude*, so to say, into which it has undeniably fallen.—Very truly, F. C. EATON.

COLUMBUS, O., May 29, 1888.

POLITICS IN JAPAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Important changes have just been made among the Government officials. First of all, a Privy Council has been established, to consist of a dozen or more members, besides the President, the Vice-President, and Cabinet officers, who are *ex officio* members. This Council will be composed of men of different factions and political opinions. It will, therefore, be somewhat of a representative body, and will become an important factor in shaping the policy of the Government. This Council will have special consideration of all ordinances which are to be issued, and of the Constitution which is to be drafted. Moreover, questions of public policy, heretofore settled only by the Cabinet Ministers, are hereafter not to be decided without the assent of this Privy Council. To constitute a legal meeting of this body, the attendance of at least ten members has been established as a quorum. It will now be a much more difficult matter to procure the issuance of such a proclamation as the one of last Christmas. Some Japanese newspapers criticise the establishment of this Council because in England such a body has become useless, and has fallen into disrepute; but many people think that here it will be a necessary institution, until the meeting of the new Parliament in 1890, and then it will be abolished.

Count Ito, in accordance with his request, has been relieved of the office of Prime Minister, and transferred to the duty of President of the Privy Council. He has also been especially invited by the Emperor, as a mark of confidence and honor, to be present at the meetings of the Cabinet. Count Ito has been a faithful and indefatigable Prime Minister for more than two years. During his term he has been accustomed to devote four or five hours a day to consultation with foreigners upon questions of governmental policy. And, even during his vacation, when he had retired to his summer residence for rest, he took his private secretaries with him, and devoted considerable time every day to similar consultations. He has been especially interested in the drafting of the Constitution, and has already issued new municipal laws. In fact, one reason for his transfer from the arduous duties of the Prime Minister to his new position was, that he might be able

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to devote himself particularly to the development of the Constitution.

The new Prime Minister is Count Kuroda, who has filled various important offices, military and civil. He served as Governor of Hokkaido at the time when attempts were made to colonize and develop the northern island of Yezo. When that enterprise, chiefly on account of the great expense, became unpopular, he lost the public favor. But he has been growing popular again, and was lately called into the Cabinet. Now, as the tide of public favor has ebbed away from Count Ito, Gen. Kuroda assumes the Premiership. The latter has more reputation for generalship than for statesmanship; but he is an acute observer of all things, and will not be likely to establish a military despotism. He has strong political opinions, but he will respect public opinion. He is popular socially among the natives and foreigners, and is friendly to the latter.

These appointments have been made quietly and without resort to assassination, which has been thought to be the Japanese method of effecting changes among their public officials. They are hailed as indications of a more popular policy, which will aim to unite all factions and to represent the different opinions. They seem to indicate the development of a good constitution, which will be neither ultra-German nor ultra-British, but will be framed upon a model which shall incorporate the best points of both. It is thought that thus a constitution best adapted to the needs and circumstances of Japan will be developed. One thing is certain, that the Japanese Government desires to improve its methods and to deserve well of other nations. It is, therefore, hoped that it will not receive unjust censure, such as to discourage it in its efforts; but that, even if it sometimes makes mistakes, it will receive encouragement from all who rejoice in progress in civilization.

E. W. Clement.

Mito, Japan, May 5, 1888.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'In Castle and Cabin; or, Talks in Ireland in 1887,' by George Pellew; 'A Sketch of the Germanic Constitution, from the Earliest Times to the Dissolution of the Kingdom,' by Samuel Epes Turner; 'The Tariff History of the United States, from 1789 to 1888,' by F. W. Taussig; 'Industrial Liberty,' by John N. Bonham; 'Suggestive Therapeutics: a Study of the Nature and Uses of Hypnotism,' from the German of Dr. H. Bernheim; 'The Story of Turkey,' by Stanley Lane-Poole; 'A Hard-Won Victory,' by Grace D. Litchfield; and 'The Gallery of a Random Collector,' by Clinton Ross.

'Is Protection a Benefit? A Plea for the Negative,' by Prof. Edward Taylor, will be issued directly by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago; also, 'The National Revenues,' twenty-one essays, mostly by Eastern economists, edited by Albert Shaw of Minneapolis, and by no means harmonious in opinion.

We have already spoken of 'The Masters of Wood-Engraving,' the important work which Mr. W. J. Linton is engaged in bringing out in England. Specimen pages of it, now before us, show that it will rank very near the head of its class in mechanical execution. The size is called "short royal folio," and on a double page admits cuts of twelve by eight. Those inserted in the text are printed on a tinted ground, and deftly pasted in, the derivation being indicated in the margin. The typography is very fine. The work is obtainable only by subscribers, who, for a copy of the edition of 500, must pay ten guineas; and for the large-sized edition of 100, twenty guineas. Mr. Linton's address is 4 Trafalgar Square, Charing Cross, London.

Dr. Anton Bettelheim of Vienna is engaged in preparing a biography of Berthold Auerbach, and asks to be aided in his undertaking by those who possess letters from the novelist or are able to communicate reminiscences of him. Dr. Bettelheim's address is Währing, Feldgasse 35, Vienna.

Four more volumes of the substantial Library Edition of the joint works of Walter Besant and James Rice have been issued by Dodd, Mead & Co., viz.: 'By Celia's Arbor,' 'The Monks of Thelema,' 'This Son of Vulcan,' and 'With Harp and Crown.'

"Paracelsus" and "Strafford" fill the second volume of the new edition of 'The Poetical Works of Robert Browning,' which the author is now seeing through the press (Macmillan & Co.). We are pleased afresh with the simplicity and portability of these volumes, so well adapted for the lover of poetry.

Shakspere's "Coriolanus," Hecker's 'Black Death' and 'Dancing Mania' (translated by Babington), a second and last volume of Sir John Malcolm's 'Sketches of Persia,' the last but one of Pepys's 'Diary,' and Milton's 'Areopagitica,' carry along "Cassell's National Library" to its 123d issue.

The best of the prose selections in 'George Riddle's Readings' (Boston: Walter H. Baker & Co.) is the first, "Come Here!"—from the German. The hitherto unpublished pieces expressly written for Mr. Riddle, and which help make the collection, as he says, "fairly representative" of his work as a miscellaneous reader, are beneath criticism, and only prove once again how prone "readers" are to unevenness in choice, and how little they do to elevate the literary taste of their audiences. The same reflection has often to be made in the case of school reading-books and works on elocution.

A small pamphlet called 'A Paper on Bass Fishing,' by Charles Barker Bradford (Pond Publishing Co.) is devoted chiefly to informing the public where black bass can be caught in quantity within an hour's ride of New York. It must be that Mr. Bradford is either going to give up angling or change his residence from the neighborhood of New York, for certainly he would never otherwise have publicly revealed that paradise of a lake near Rahway, New Jersey, whose inlet is a lovely stream from which, for more than two miles, "any man who knows how to handle a rod or throw a fly can land or at least hook some of the liveliest two to three-pounders he could wish for." An edition of twenty-five copies on large paper should have been privately printed and distributed among the tried angling friends of the author. The last few pages of the paper give ample instructions on bass fishing.

Bragg's invasion of Kentucky, East Tennessee and the Campaign of Perryville (by Gen. Buell), Cumberland Gap, the Battle of Fredericksburg (by Gen. "Baldy" Smith and others), and Chancellorsville, furnish stirring reading in Nos. 17, 18, of 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War' (The Century Co.).

'Deutschland und die Deutschen' is a small volume by Dr. H. Kostyák and Professor A. Ader, published by The Modern Language Publishing Company. Apparently designed for translation by learners of German, it is in manner similar to an article extracted from an encyclopædia. The matter is broken up into paragraphs, each of which has its own heading, and which contain a good deal of useful information. The desire to compress many things into a small space necessitates a degree of condensation that often produces a comical effect. This is especially noticeable in the portions devoted to literature and art. Thus, one is surprised to see Hebbel, Freytag, and Hackländer yoked together, and to find among novelists no mention of Ebers and Dahn. Equally odd is the juxtaposition of Meyerbeer with Offenbach and Strauss. Most amusing of all are the remarks on German manners and German society, which, we are told, are more high-bred and elegant than among any other nation.

The Duc de Broglie has published two more volumes of his series of histories of the great diplomatic and military conflicts of the eighteenth century, in which the prominent figures are Louis XV., Maria Theresa, and Frederick the Great, with their generals and ministers, official and unofficial. It is entitled 'Marie Thérèse impératrice' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof).

The same publisher has just issued the work upon which M. Albert Duruy was engaged during the last months of his life, and of which the third and concluding part appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 15, 1887, only a few days after his death. It is called 'L'Armée royale en 1789,' and was originally intended as an introduction to a great work, for which the author was arranging the materials when he died, upon the French army of the Revolution and the Empire. The present volume is preceded by an interesting biographical introduction, written by the younger brother of the author, M. George Duruy, Professor of History at the Lycée Henri IV., and author of 'L'Unisson' and other novels which have appeared within a few years with much success. M. Victor Duruy, the Academician and former Minister of Public Instruction under the Empire, the father of the two younger men, is now giving at intervals, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, long passages from his new 'Histoire des Grecs.' Hachette is publishing this work in similar style to the new 'Histoire des Romains' of M. Duruy, which was completed in seven large octavo volumes in 1885, and which is rather a new work than a new edition of his former 'Histoire des Romains,' first published in 1870-74.

M. Henry Houssaye's new book, '1814' (Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof), is the story of the year which might be called in France, with more reason even than 1870, *l'année terrible*. It is not a mere piece of rhetorical writing, but a mass of facts drawn from official reports and letters in the National Archives, the Archives of Foreign Affairs, and of War, from the memoirs and correspondence of persons of weight, etc. It is written with animation and spirit, although, in the fashion of the day, it is excessively *documenté*, and it is always clear and easy to read, although its abundant materials are compressed and crowded upon each other, sometimes to almost as great an extent as would have been done by M. Taine himself.

A. Giry's 'Étude sur les Origines de la Commune de Saint-Quentin' (Saint-Quentin: C. H. Poette) is an admirable monograph, throwing much light upon the general development of the mediæval French municipality. The difficult problem of the origin of the town jurisdiction, "le tribunal des échevins," is treated with much fulness and ability (pp. 31-67). Since the death of Thierry, no one has made more valuable contributions to the literature of French municipal history than Professor Giry. He has not Thierry's brilliancy of style, but he excels the latter in accuracy of detail.

An interesting work concerning the economic history of Spain has recently appeared, entitled 'Die wirtschaftliche Blüte Spaniens im 16.

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Jahrhundert und ihr Verfall' (Berlin: Gaertner. Pp. 179). The author, Konrad Haebler, attempts to prove that most writers wrongly ascribe to the reign of Charles V. a decadence in the economic condition of Spain; that in reality this was a period of economic progress, and that the retrogression began under his successor, Philip II. The book contains much useful information, but also many misleading views. We doubt whether he has proved his main proposition.

There has just been issued, from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* and *Library Journal* (330 Pearl Street, New York), an 'Author-Index to the Coöperative Index to Periodicals' for 1887. The 'Coöperative Index,' we should be glad to think all our readers were aware, is the voluntary labor of the leading librarians of the country in continuation of 'Poole's Index;' in other words, it is a quarterly key to the best current periodical literature. The 'Author-Index' furnishes the names of the writers, so far as known—and they *are* known or are ascertained in the majority of instances. Its utility needs no words from us, but we are glad to praise the disinterested toil which has produced it.

In the *Magazine of American History* for June we remark Dr. G. E. Manigault's article on the "Military Career of Gen. George Izard," best known as one of the inglorious American commanders in the war of 1812, on the Canadian border. The present writer seeks to vindicate Gen. Izard's reputation by justifying his prudence; but he perhaps succeeds best in conveying the impression that the family papers would afford material for a rather interesting memoir, picturing both the man and the times.

Mr. M. D. Learned's chapter on "The Pennsylvania German Dialect" is the least technical of the papers contributed to No. 33 of the *American Journal of Philology*. It is a fragment of a considerable treatise, but it shows well the curious complexity of the German dialects commonly confounded under the name of Pennsylvania "Dutch," as well as the great mixture of language, and nationalities, or "ethnic elements," in the early settlement of Pennsylvania, from which much might be deduced with reference to the development of the State. The German dialectic characteristics, we are told, are still traceable.

An article on the "Winter-Roosting Colonies of Crows" was perhaps hardly to be looked for in the *American Journal of Psychology*, though we must admit the bearings of brute intelligence on human, and we recall the test of the counting capacity of the crow, which proved that he got fatally confused above five or six. Mr. C. L. Edwards studies them, in the May number just issued, for the manifestations of the social instinct, but without much psychologizing. Quite in line, on the other hand, is Dr. William Noyes's description of a case of "systematized delusional insanity" on the part of an American pupil of Gérôme, whose symbolic art aberrations are copied in facsimile, and show him to have the decorative sense in a rather unusual degree. Other articles are "A Study of Dreams," by Julius Nelson, which is curious and suggestive, though in parts hard reading; and "The Relative Legibility of the Small Letters," by E. C. Sanford—a very practical discussion.

L'Art for May 1 (Macmillan) comes rubricated as the Salon number, and M. Paul Leroi has, in fact, the floor entirely to himself. The illustrated memoranda of the pictures (or the sketches for the pictures) are mostly of the grades employed in the Salon catalogue. A full-page etching, "Tulip Culture," is reserved for an American artist who has made Holland his chosen field, Mr. George Hitchcock; but it was his last year's contribution. His "Annunciation Lilies" of the present exhibition has been skied, M. Leroi complains.

The twentieth annual meeting of the American Philological Association will be held at Amherst, Massachusetts, beginning at three P. M., Tuesday, July 10, 1888, in Walker Hall, Amherst College. Members intending to be present are requested to send their names to Mr. L. H. Elwell (Amherst, Mass.), Chairman of the Local Committee, as soon as possible. Those who propose to read papers are requested to notify the Secretary of the Association, Mr. John H. Wright of Harvard University, not later than Thursday, June 28.

—The *Century* for June brings us the first of the direct observations of Russian prison life made by Mr. Kennan, and it comes with sufficient evidence of the sanitary condition which the Russian Government knowingly tolerates, to satisfy the most reluctant reader. There is nothing in this particular case which shows unusual rigor towards the political prisoners, but rather it is an illustration of the state of things which is normal in the prison management for all classes. The details are given with distinctness, and the figures are taken from authoritative sources; nearly twenty thousand exiles pass through this station of Tiumen yearly, and the sick-rate is more than one in four. It has accommodation—Siberian accommodation—for eight hundred, and usually confines eighteen hundred in its walls. The picture of the scene, with its sickening details, the reader may see for himself, as no abridgment can convey its inhumanity. But it is only fair to remember the condition of European prisons not very long ago, when passing judgment on the Government that permits such places as this prison-pen to decimate and debase its criminals and their families. The remainder of the number is unusually well illustrated, and in particular Mr. De Vinne's interesting paper upon the Antwerp publisher, Plantin. Mr. John Burroughs writes upon Matthew Arnold, in a somewhat heavy and involved way, it is true, but with appreciation for the ideals and some grasp of the method of the Englishman in whom the purely literary spirit has had most complete sway. Arnold illustrates the excellences and defects of this spirit with remarkable clearness, but Mr. Burroughs has an eye only for the former. It is noticeable that the writer treats Arnold's religious writings with altogether unusual respect. The Lincoln biography furnishes an interior view of the Frémont campaign in Missouri, and an estimate of the Blair family by the President, a valuable criticism of Lincoln's on Frémont's emancipation proclamation, and a painful letter from Horace Greeley after Bull Run. The departments are unusually excellent.

—Mr. Francis Galton, in a communication recently made before the British Anthropological Institute, deduced some interesting conclusions regarding brain-size and brain-development, which are not exactly in harmony with the generally preconceived notions on the subject. These conclusions are, as stated by himself (*Nature*, May 3): (1.) Although it is pretty well ascertained that in the masses of the population the brain ceases to grow after the age of nineteen, or even earlier, it is by no means so with university students. (2.) Men who obtain high honors have had considerably larger brains than others at the age of nineteen. (3.) They have larger brains than others, but not to the same extent, at the age of twenty-five, the predominance at that time being diminished to one-half of what it was. (4.) Resulting from the preceding, "high honor" men are presumably, taken as a class, both more precocious and more gifted than others. Consequently, Mr. Galton thinks, we must "look upon eminent university success as a fortunate combination of these two helpful conditions." These interesting observations, which open up a broad vista into a new line of physiological inquiry, are based upon a series of carefully conducted measurements of "head products" and "relative brain volumes" made during a period of three years by Dr. Venn on students of Cambridge University.

—Volume ix of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, for 1888, is at hand. As compared with some of its predecessors, especially volume vii, it contains less that is of interest; but the Goethe student will not leave it empty-handed. The volume opens with a reproduction of Angelica Kauffmann's drawing, illustrating the scene in Goethe's "Iphigenie" (iii, 3), where *Orestes*, just recovering from his delirium, greets *Iphigenia*, who returns with *Pylades* to her brother's aid. The scene and figures have an air of softness and tenderness; there is a pathos and sentiment as in a woman's conception of a scene in a drama whose central figure is a woman. "Gemüthlich gezeichnet," is Goethe's comment on the sketch in a letter of June 8, 1787. Like its predecessors, the contents of the present volume are classified under the heads of New Communications, Essays, and Miscellanies; it contains also the report of the Goethe Society and a list of its members, with a list of the members of the sister society in England. Under the first head the contributions from the Goethe archives in Weimar deserve chief mention. Three fragments in verse come first, a Prometheus fragment and two Faust scraps, entitled "Abkündigung" and "Abschied"; the latter quite in the tone of Goethe's letters to Schiller during the last decade of the past century, when "Faust" was to the poet a relic of barbarism, a reminder of dark days before his sun "rose wondrous in the south."

> "Und so geschlossen sei der Barbareien
> Beschränkter Kreis mit seinen Zaubereien."

are the words with which Goethe here would take leave of a task which was to accompany him his whole life through.

—Among the letters which the archives furnish us, those written by Schopenhauer, then just entering upon his career, in the years 1814–18, are of interest for the light they throw upon the young philosopher, supplementing, as they do, the other side of the correspondence already published. Schopenhauer came into personal contact with Goethe as early as 1811; his mother's acquaintance with the poet dates from a period five years earlier, at which time, after her husband's death, she took up her abode in Weimar. Goethe's theory of color seems to have formed the bond between himself and Schopenhauer; it is on that, and not on philosophy or poetry, that this correspondence turns. Schopenhauer had intrusted to a friend a work of his own, "On Sight and Color," to be put in Goethe's hands for his inspection. Eight weeks passed, and Goethe had not even acknowledged the receipt of it, and Schopenhauer, with the young author's anxiety but with no timidity, wrote to learn of its whereabouts. Goethe replied reassuringly, and Schopenhauer sent a long letter—some ten printed pages—in which he sets forth the points in which his theory of color differs from that of Goethe. It is full of self-confidence and conceit, uttered with a most delicious frankness. But Schopenhauer failed in his main endeavor, to prevail upon Goethe to stand godfather to

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his work when published, and Goethe returned it after some six months, amid jealous fears on the author's part that some one else might have seen the manuscript and possessed himself of the precious discovery. The last of the letters is written in 1818, just before Schopenhauer's departure for Italy, and contains an announcement of the speedy publication of Schopenhauer's *magnum opus*, 'Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung,' the title of which, he tells Goethe, is known to no one except himself and his publisher. Of the four Essays in the *Jahrbuch*, two are devoted to "Wilhelm Meister." Biographical notices of Scherer, Vischer, and Goedeke appear among the Miscellanies, which close with some seventy-five pages of bibliography. The report of the Goethe Society shows it to be in a most flourishing condition; at the end of January, 1888, the Society numbered 2,883 members, including 201 members of the English Society, a gain of 223 in ten months, while the funds in the treasury amounted to nearly $3,400.

—Doubtless many readers of the *Nation* are old enough to remember the sensation produced in 1835 by the publication of Locke's "Moon-hoax," describing the condition of the moon as observed by Sir John Herschel at the Cape of Good Hope through a new telescope of extraordinary power; but probably few are now aware of the wide currency obtained by this clever performance. It was in vain that Arago pointed out to the French Academy its scientific impossibility in December, 1835. Four months afterwards, in April, 1836, an Italian version of the pamphlet appeared in Naples, translated, according to the title-page, from the one hundred and fourth French edition. It was accompanied by a preface gravely arguing that, in spite of M. Arago's criticisms, the scientific details of the work were too minute to be supposititious, and it had as a frontispiece a fairly executed copper-plate representing one of the "man-bats," or winged beings, discovered by Sir John in the lunar world. A copy of this brochure now before us serves to point the moral that we ought not to be too severe upon the credulity of our ancestors. Much of our wholesome modern scepticism may be attributed rather to the facilities for conveying intelligence and contradicting falsehood than to any radical change in our mental processes.

RECENT NOVELS.

Robert Elsmere. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. London: Smith, Elder & Co.

One Traveller Returns. By D. Christie Murray and Henry Herman. Longmans, Green & Co.

A Brother to Dragons. By Amélie Rives. Harper & Brothers.

Maxmina. By Don Armando Palacio Valdés. Translated from the Spanish by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Herr Paulus. By Walter Besant. Harper & Brothers.

For the Right. By Karl Emil Franzos. Given in English by Julie Sutter. Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Absalom Billingslea and Other Georgia Folk. By R. M. Johnston. Harper & Brothers.

FROM the beginning it is clear that the reading of 'Robert Elsmere' will be a serious matter, and to throw the book aside after skimming the first chapter would not be proof of radical frivolity. Mrs. Ward has attempted, if not to identify, at least to harmonize, conflicting interests, and to incorporate, in a form that promises mental distraction, matter which demands mental concentration. She has tried to write a novel and to preach a regenerative gospel, and if she has not utterly failed in either task, she has not achieved a success commensurate with the industry, vigor, and enthusiasm expended. She is infected with the common hallucination that the literary instinct and urgent moral and religious purpose are natural yoke-fellows, efficiently supplementary each to the other. The truth is, that the literary instinct makes for art, the moral purpose for reform, and a forced partnership results in disaster to the weaker impulse, and even in enfeeblement of the stronger. Power may be born in the brain, but its trusty reserves are in the heart, and Mrs. Ward's heart is filled to overflowing with her gospel. The necessity to observe, in any degree, the conventions of fiction is a constant check upon complete utterance of her mission, and a bar to her efficiency as a propagandist. Exclusively possessed by her purpose, she has been blind to a novelist's first care and duty, which is to project living people upon his page. Her prominent figures are merely conveniences helping memory to hold the threads of argument. Catherine, Elsmere's wife, is a concrete image of conservatism and tradition, of positive hostility to progress. She is a rock in the path of intellectual curiosity, and resents implacably its attacks upon her creed. A strain of asceticism in her recalls George Eliot's Dorothea, though in the matter of jewels Catherine is the more liberal, condescending to wear hair bracelets and, on occasion, a pin at her throat. Her sister, Rose, stands for art, and is permitted all the vagaries of manner and costume conceded to be the privilege of art abiding in the form of a lovely girl. Langham, the Oxford scholar, represents that indifferentism which is lately become the distinction of the fastidious, hypercritical man of letters. He embodies the negations of life, and, separated by the uncontrollable processes of his mind from sympathy with the aims of other men, is finally confronted with the impossibility of making common cause with them.

The author is not fond of Langham, yet he alone is thoroughly realized. His personality, apart from his type, is interesting. He has been spared the elaborate description bestowed upon the heroes and martyrs. In comparison with creation, description is child's play, and Mrs. Ward has freely availed herself of it, often to the reader's sore deprivation. Some specimens of the Irish fun and originality of Elsmere's mother would have been very acceptable; a sprinkling of Mme. de Netteville's brilliant audacities would have enlivened the three volumes amazingly. The most serious person could have enjoyed the suppressed racy stories told by the Squire about Mommsen and Ranke; something more of scholarly books than the title and author's name might have provoked comparison with George Eliot, instead of with that repository of impressive nomenclature, the author of 'Beulah' and 'St. Elmo.'

Of the literature that assails and denies the divinity of Christ, Mrs. Ward has indeed read widely, and has sufficiently assimilated her reading to reproduce the most obvious arguments lucidly and forcibly. Her information is used in the development of Elsmere, who is identified with her all-important purpose. This purpose is to demonstrate by the literary and historical, the comparative method, that Christ is not God, thus annihilating the mysticism, what she calls the mythology and superstition, of Christianity. Having destroyed, she proceeds to construct by promulgating a pure Theism, strengthened, for practical purposes, by acceptance of the ethical preaching of Jesus of Nazareth. She rejects the dogma of Christianity, yet cherishes what she believes to be its essence and spirit. She speaks scornfully of Unitarianism, yet it is difficult to see just where she differs from it. Criticism of her work from the premises that Christianity is an isolated religion, and that the Bible is a direct revelation from God, not to be weighed and sifted by methods justly applicable to books of merely human testimony, would inevitably be undiscriminating, probably disingenuous, yet, willing as one may be to go along with her, her unconscious partisanship is uncomfortably manifest.

In the great crisis of his spiritual and actual life, Robert Elsmere exclaims:

"Every human soul in which the voice of God makes itself felt enjoys equally with Jesus of Nazareth the divine sonship, and *miracles do not happen.*"

And again:

"I can no longer believe in an incarnation and resurrection. Christ is risen in our hearts, in the Christian life of charity. Miracle is a natural product of human feeling and imagination; and God was in Jesus—preëminently as he is in all great souls, but not otherwise—not otherwise in kind than he is in you and me."

It is to support these convictions that Mrs. Ward rallies all her evidence. On the other side there is almost a blank: not a word of the appeals to the intelligence at the tongue's end of those who are both rational and faithful; nothing but incoherent tirades from a ritualist priest, and the untimely quotation of Christian axioms by Catherine. We are told that Elsmere struck manfully for the dear faith that was slipping away from him; we see him silenced by some trite arguments advanced by a confirmed sceptic, unarmed and defenceless before a few books redolent of commonplace for students of religion. The weakness of this situation, which is the central one, is incredible, and thereby Mrs. Ward has delivered herself into the hands of the enemy. Yet the enemy, if tolerant, will treat her charitably, and, while deploring her heresy, must acknowledge her love for the things that are true, honest, just, pure, lovely, and of good report, and her intense eagerness to point a way by which humanity may be led to the Kingdom of God and his righteousness.

After this lengthy contention that Christianity, in its full, real meaning, is and ought to be an expiring faith, it is restful to contemplate Christianity coming as tidings of great joy to joyless multitudes. The scene of 'One Traveller Returns' is in Britain, at the time when, though the gods of Greece and Rome tottered in their shrines, the Britons still served their fearful Bel and There and Odan, their souls held in bondage by a most cruel and oppressive priesthood. The good news is just being whispered in the Isles, and everywhere the people are prepared to substitute a religion of love, peace, and freedom for one of hate, bloodshed, and slavery. Through purely human agency the light dawns upon the Corleans, but, to reveal its splendor, the order of nature is disturbed, a miracle happens—their dead Queen Vreda is permitted to come back to earth and dwell among them. The story opens with the poisoning of Vreda by Barxelhold, the wanton daughter of the arch-Druid Wenegog. In this crime the girl's lover, Feltor, the King, is accomplice. Vreda passes from life into death—that is, to an estate where, physically, she neither feels, sees, nor hears, but, spiritually, is aware of all things, both in the old life and in the new. The description of Vreda's existence in her new state is remarkable for its clear realization and clever avoidance of phrases and words applicable

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only to physical being. Perceiving the misery and hopeless ignorance of her people, a great longing to help them possesses Vreda, and, when the longing shapes itself into an anguish of entreaty, the miracle happens: she is on earth again charged with the mission of a nation's salvation. Through the love and voluntary suffering of one, the redemption of many is accomplished.

In narrating stories of the supernatural, it is the custom to excite horror or terror, thus subjugating reason to emotion. Here, these expedients are rejected, yet the reader's sense for probability is not outraged. The action is continuous and smooth, and the dramatic instants occur so spontaneously that mere verbal effect can well be dispensed with. The impression left of familiarity with people of a remote era and with a life long gone by, bears testimony both to the authors' mastery of the art of fiction, and to their critical perception of the historical material that best serves their art.

In the youthful effusions of the writers who make a literary epoch, the influence of great predecessors both upon thought and style is always more or less evident. It is the natural expression of the devotion of the disciple to the master, and the future of the young writer may be predicted with some certainty from his selection of models and the way in which he has used them. The three stories in the volume entitled 'A Brother to Dragons' owe their existence to the attraction for the author exercised by the fathers of English imaginative literature. The influence of the Elizabethans is marked in degree and exceptional in kind. While the impression made by the essence of their genius is scarcely discoverable, that of certain minor manifestations is unprecedentedly strong. There is no trace of the immortal part of Shakspere, of the rarity of Ben Jonson, no echo of their exuberant life, their fine, free thought, their daring yet delicate fancy. The Shakspere of the groundlings speaks from every page. *Juliet's Nurse* and *Mistress Quickly* are the animating forces. To reproduce the sentiments and diction of these engaging prototypes the device is adopted of putting the tales in the respective mouths of a gardener, a blacksmith, and a nurse. The title story, "A Brother to Dragons," on its first appearance in the *Atlantic Monthly*, was received with such general approbation that an examination may prove instructive to young authors anxious first to secure a reputable editor and after that the public. It will certainly encourage the humble and faint-hearted, appalled by the practical difficulties believed to stand in the way of ambition soaring in that direction.

The heroine is a Lady Margaret, astoundingly beautiful, and a rich orphan. Her accomplishments are chiefly muscular. She rides a horse "few men would dare bestride"; she swims "like a sea-maid," and is a crack shot with a long-bow. Her only companions are the narrating gardener and his wife, the lady's nurse. The impression that nobly-born English ladies of the Tudor period were always relegated to such companionship is not one for which the Elizabethans should be held responsible, but it has an inalienable hold on the minds of the producers and consumers of that nineteenth-century fiction which will probably be snubbed by future historians. Wearied one day by the chase, or some such characteristic occupation, the Lady Margaret throws herself upon her couch of skins, and there, apparently, falls asleep. But she is "playing 'possum," and drinks in a conversation between the gardener and the nurse, in which gross facts are stated in grossest fashion. The subject of this talk is the "bad and bloody Lord of Denbigh," and the result is to inspire a flower of innocence with a resolve to save his valuable soul. Presently up rides the "wicked Earl," and preparations for his salvation are actively begun. With the courage of her resolves, the lady assumes the disguise of a young gallant. To hinder the Earl from engaging in some deviltry, the exact nature of which is shrouded in mystery, she imperils her life. The Earl's reformation is effected, and his eternal devotion to his fair saint secured. By the time he weds the lady, his innocence and virtue are fit to stand beside her own; he is reduced to the cooing stage of babyhood, quite (as the author would say) "an he had been any christom child." The narrating gardener alternates comparisons of hair with buttercups and butterfly wings, of hands with white rose leaves, and a coarse sensuality of phrase that not infrequently slips into licentiousness.

This predominating strain of coarseness runs through the two remaining tales. In "The Farrier Lass" there is a strong though not novel conception of character capable of a development of which simplicity and purity would be the distinction. In the third, Nurse Crumpet tells her tale to two noble nurslings with small deference *virginibus puerisque*. Her theme is the determination of an obstreperous Lucasta that Lovelace shall not go to the wars. Vainly does Lovelace plead in violent prose—

> "I could not love thee, dear, so much,
> Loved I not honour more."

Lucasta locks him up in a cave, and there, though she has thoughtfully provided bread and wine, and though he is a healthy fellow (what the author neglected to describe as a "most lustick youth"), he dies in a short time, apparently of starvation. This situation has originality, and so has the rough-and-tumble fight between the two women in front of the cave, when Lucasta defends herself "like a she-wolf at bay, with teeth and talons, too." To point out the abuse and misuse of archaic phrases and words throughout the volume would be as profitless as disagreeable. They are testimony in detail of the vast inexperience of life and of the comprehensive ignorance of literary proprieties which distinguish the work and make its best apology.

The secrets of the heart, the most tender and intimate relations of life, are treated in 'Maximina' with charming refinement. Situations peculiarly susceptible to vulgarization are described with a frank naturalness which, while exhibiting their naïveté and humor, leaves their delicacy unimpaired. Commonplace, domestic life is idealized, invested with poetry and grace, by an author whose insight and sympathetic feeling enable him to penetrate beneath the surface, and to disclose, without offence, the hidden truth. Nothing could be more romantic than the spirit of Miguel and Maximina's young married days; nothing more ordinary than the facts. Except for her genuine femineity, Maximina is not an interesting woman. She is a sprightly, ingenuous child, exclusively interested in her personal happiness, with which Miguel's is identified. In the course of time she would probably have tried Miguel sorely; therefore, to those who believe in the pitiless logic of character, the pathos of her early death is not tinged with sorrow. Inevitably the time must have come when a man of Miguel's temperament would have demanded more congeniality of thought, more intellectual sympathy, than Maximina could ever give him.

In following Miguel's career one is sensible of the author's conviction that a man's character is responsible for his destiny, and that the seemingly gratuitous cruelty of circumstance is the material put in his hands to mould his character. He is essentially a man with more impulse than judgment, more sentiment than practicality. Bitter experience is needed to show him his natural possibilities and limitations, and never could he be taught to use his world for his own advantage. Therefore, his political experiences are at once pitiful and amusing. Any one, except himself, could foresee certain disaster as the result of his meddling with affairs demanding for successful conduct almost every quality that he lacked, and none that he possessed. In the political passages the author's contemptuous irony suggests that, at the time, the Spanish "machine" was so hopelessly bad that serious condemnation would be wasted. It is evident that professional politicians are the same all the world over, and there is a ludicrous resemblance between the methods of the Spanish machine and machines nearer home. The fortunes of many interesting people touch those of Miguel and Maximina, and, though not closely interwoven, make a natural social surrounding. There is no technical plot, no centre of interest; and attention is not riveted on one object, any more than it is in life itself. This method is fairly satisfactory when adopted by a master of selection like Valdés, but it would surely bring the average novelist to grief.

Unquestionably Mr. Besant is as familiar as was his hero, 'Herr Paulus,' with "the whole of the Spiritualist business from the common medium with his taps to the occult philosopher with his mahatmas." There is nothing that he doesn't know about Spiritualism, and nothing that he hesitates to expose with genial candor and irreverent glee. His stage is the house of an elderly wealthy person to whom messages and manifestations are as the breath of his nostrils, and upon whose credulity mediums of every degree of worthlessness have thriven for a score of years. When the star, Herr Paulus, appears, the minor actors shrink away into the gloom of the wings. The tricks of Herr Paulus are wonderful and baffling even to his fellow-rogues, who, like all spiteful and envious artists, resort to sarcastic criticism and angry denunciation. But the elegant young apostle, the disciple of sages learned in the ancient way, tramples ruthlessly on the discomfited. His career is a succession of victories, until love for a woman deprives him of his mystic power, and he becomes helpless as Samson beneath the shears of Delilah. With all his conjurer's tricks explained, Herr Paulus remains a very subtle and astute young man, endowed with extraordinary mesmeric power, and many of his performances are as inexplicable to common intelligence as if they were really supervised and directed by departed spirits. It is no wonder that he confounded the simple and bewildered the sceptical. He was almost clever enough to convince himself that he had something inestimably precious to impart to the worthy people who chatter about esoteric Buddhism and the wisdom of the adepts, and almost ingenious enough to persuade science that its wisdom is folly and its boasted truth the most arrogant of assumptions.

A belief in God's justice and a passionate purpose to enforce its practice among men inspires the author of 'For the Right.' The belief is implanted in the heart of Taras Barabola, a Galician peasant, and the purpose both glorifies and wrecks his life. The nobility of his nature is not diminished by his mistakes, nor by his terrible actual failure. A man dominated by one idea is apt to be fanatical, and to be always harping on one string is more tiresome in fiction even than in reality. The

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account of the struggles of Taras to establish justice is tiresome, and is only saved from dulness by the picturesqueness of his sphere of action and the exciting incidents of his career as an avenger. Still, one never loses perception of the grandeur of the man's soul, and the keenest sympathy with his efforts is roused by recognition of their error and futility. Apart from interest in the theme of the book, there is much to attract in the description of a comparatively unknown people—a people still living under a mitigated feudal system, yet ready to fight to the death for any infringement of the rights traditionally theirs. The light thrown on the religious belief and practices of an isolated community ostensibly Christian is particularly interesting. There is a curious survival of Paganism in a race which, nominally adhering to the Eastern Church, still worships the sun and moon, the lords of light, and, while placing a crucifix at the head of a dead man, puts beside him the skin of a kid and salt for "the other gods."

The stories in the volume entitled 'Mr. Absalom Billingslea' are a series of sketches of Georgian folk whose chief claim to fame is their extraordinarily corrupt, and all but unintelligible, English. It is possible that there are people who habitually talk this jargon, but that is no good reason for its preservation in literature. Constantly irritated and puzzled by the language, the reader is unable to appreciate what strength or humor or pathos may lie in the characters. They become one with the rude grotesqueness of the sounds they utter, travestying human nature as the sounds burlesque human speech.

THREE CRUISES OF THE *BLAKE*.

A Contribution to American Thalassography: Three Cruises of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey Steamer *Blake* in the Gulf of Mexico, in the Caribbean Sea, and along the Atlantic Coast of the United States. By Alexander Agassiz. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 2 vols., xxii., 214, and 220 pp. Royal 8vo. Maps and illustrations.

For instruction in Thalassography, or the knowledge of oceanic basins, the unprofessional reader has hitherto been obliged to seek his text-books in foreign literature. Of professional works, like that of Sigsbee on deep-sea sounding and dredging, and scientific papers, like those of Tanner, Verrill, and many others, in special lines of research, there is indeed a most creditable list of American titles. But for a parallel to Wyville Thomson's 'Depths of the Sea,' or Wild's 'Thalassa,' one would have hitherto searched our libraries in vain. To Mr. Alexander Agassiz we are indebted for the present work, which, in its scope, its wealth of illustration, and its presentation of fresh and important matter, leaves nothing to be desired

The author explains, in his introduction, that his connection with the deep-sea work of the Coast Survey dates back to 1849, when, as a boy, he accompanied Prof. Louis Agassiz on a cruise off Nantucket, and served as an aid, two years later, during the investigation of the Florida reefs. When, in 1877, he was invited by Superintendent Patterson to pursue, under the auspices of the Survey, those studies with which he had been more or less occupied for a quarter of a century, the invitation was naturally accepted, with what important results all thalassographers are well aware.

The field of work opened to naturalists by such surveys is of the greatest importance. The materials collected throw a flood of light on our knowledge of the conditions of animal life in deep water, and promise the most important general conclusions on terrestrial physics and geology. Fascinating as the study of marine life has always been, even to amateurs, its interest has greatly increased since the abyssal fauna has been reached. Light has suddenly been thrown on many vexed problems concerning the geographical distribution of dry land in former geological epochs, in which is involved the distribution of plants and animals and their progressive development in geological time. New views of the nature of geological periods are suggested, and new theories of the formation and duration of continents and oceanic basins present themselves. Ideas in regard to the formation of marine deposits, formerly current, have been greatly modified, and many chapters of geologic history reconstructed on a more enduring foundation.

In the work done on the *Blake* during these cruises, while commanded by Lieut.-Com. Sigsbee and Commander Bartlett, as well as in the progressive development of the apparatus and methods employed, officers and civilians cordially joined forces, and the exact share of each in the success which followed, it would be impossible, as it is unnecessary, to delimit. The doubling of the trawl-runners and the substitution (suggested by Mr. Agassiz) of steel line for hempen rope, were improvements which have proved of the utmost importance in dredging, both in shortening the time needed for a haul and in insuring that the net shall not come up empty.

In the two volumes before us, Mr. Agassiz has brought together his observations on particular topics in separate chapters. In the first volume are collected a description of the equipment used on the *Blake;* an historical account of deep-sea work; a discussion of the Florida reefs and their relation to the peninsula and to the real boundaries of the continent; observations on the connection between the fauna and flora of the West Indies and those of the North American continent; on the permanence of continents and oceanic basins; on deep-sea formations; general conclusions on the deep-sea fauna, with an account of the pelagic or surface fauna of the open sea; a discussion of the sea temperatures of the western Atlantic, the Caribbean Sea, and the Gulf of Mexico; a chapter, historic and descriptive, on the Gulf Stream, with maps illustrating the progress of our knowledge of this great thalassine artery from Franklin's time to the present day; on the origin and character of the materials being deposited on the bottom of the ocean; and on the physiology of life in the abysses. The second volume begins with a discussion of the fauna of the West Indies, which is followed by chapters devoted to characteristic deep-sea types of animals—fishes, crustacea, worms, mollusks, echinoderms, jelly-fish and hydroid corals, polyps and true corals, rhizopods and sponges; the whole concluded with a list of the 545 illustrations and an excellent index of twenty-six pages in extent.

For aid in the preparation of this wealth of material Mr. Agassiz acknowledges his indebtedness to such authorities in their special lines of research as Profs. J. D. Dana and S. I. Smith of Yale, Justin Winsor of Harvard, Sigsbee and Bartlett of the navy, John Murray of the *Challenger* expedition, Mr. Theodore Lyman and Mr. J. W. Fewkes of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Prof. G. Brown Goode of the National Museum, the authorities of the United States Coast Survey, and some twenty naturalists, American and foreign, concerned with the scientific reports on the *Blake* collection. Among these is numbered the lamented Pourtalès, to whose memory the work is most appropriately dedicated. The illustrations are largely original, or drawn from previously printed special reports on the *Blake* collections, while those reproduced from other sources are, with one or two exceptions, unfamiliar to the reading public.

It is inexpedient within the limits of a review to traverse so much ground as is covered by these volumes. The names of the author and his colaborers are sufficient to attest the quality of the second volume, which treats almost exclusively of marine animal life. There are a few points in the first volume to which attention may be especially directed. These are, the conclusions of the author on the formation of coral reefs in general, and upon those of south Florida in particular; on the relations of the Gulf and Caribbean fauna to those of the Atlantic and Pacific respectively; and on the factors influencing the distribution of deep-water animals.

It was long since asserted by the elder Agassiz that the Florida reefs had a distinctive character, and could not be explained by the subsidence theory of Darwin. Of late, as most of our readers are aware, evidence has been accumulating which has fairly proved that Darwin's theory, excellent though it may be for those cases where subsidence has actually occurred, does not in many cases, perhaps even in a majority of cases, represent the real sequence of events which has resulted in the formation of barrier reefs and coral islands. Louis Agassiz, LeConte, E. B. Hunt, Alexander Agassiz, Semper, Murray, and Dr. Guppy, not to mention minor names, have, each in turn, contributed a share to the evidence and deductions which go to make up the revised theory of the present day. Leaving untouched the history of the subject, a statement of the manner in which Mr. Agassiz explains the building of south Florida will fairly indicate the nature of the new views. We may premise that, during the Eocene period, the fold of the earth's crust which forms the axis of the Floridian peninsula was gradually elevated above the sea, beginning northward and slowly extending southward, in the form of a double ridge with the same general trend as the present peninsula. The two ranges of hills forming this elevation were separated by a valley of considerable width, which, at a later time, was occupied by a series of large shallow fresh-water lakes, of which remnants still exist. The elevations still retain (in spite of the denudation which must have occurred) a maximum height of over two hundred feet, which gradually diminishes southward. Against the margins of these folds later limestones were laid down, and in their turn elevated slightly above the sea, with occasional periods of moderate depression, the most marked of which was in the quaternary period. These changes were so moderate and slow that the Floridian tertiaries show remarkably little disturbance, and indicate that eras of deposition, from the Eocene to the present time, were characterized by the same geological processes which, even now, may be observed in action.

According to Mr. Agassiz, a secondary result of this folding was the formation of an immense submarine plateau (represented by the present Florida bank) from the accumulation of the solid parts of mollusks, crustaceans, corals, worms, etc., which lived and died upon it. These furnished the limestone for the gradual completion of the peninsula. Their existence in immense numbers (as at present on the bank) was rendered possible only by the powerful current bringing incredible quantities of pelagic animals to serve as food. When the water became shallow enough for the reef corals, they sprang up along its path. There

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is no evidence that the coral area of Florida and the reef owes its existence to the effect of elevation, or that the atolls of this district owe their peculiar structure to subsidence. The curve of the Florida Reef along the Gulf Stream is due, in great measure, as shown by Hunt, to the well-known westerly counter current. This, though ill-defined at Cape Florida, becomes stronger as it goes west, having at Key West a width of at least ten miles, and twice as much at the Tortugas. When storms occur, the fine silt, made up of coral and other pulverized organic matter from the reefs, is carried into the bay northwest of the Keys and deposited there, to be carried westward by the counter current and added to the flats. That this material has not been brought by the Gulf Stream from the mouth of the Mississippi is shown by the fact that no trace of Mississippi mud has ever been found in any of the innumerable soundings taken to the eastward of the Mississippi, or more than a hundred miles from its mouth.

The line of the Keys seems to be formed by the waste of the reef at present exterior to them, rather than by the remains of an older anterior reef. But it was shown by the elder Agassiz that the southern extreme of Florida is composed of concentric barrier reefs, which have been gradually cemented into a continuous sheet of land by the accumulation and consolidation of mud flats between them. This process is carried on, according to Mr. Alexander Agassiz, essentially as above described, but this area of reef-coral building does not reach northward of the Everglades. No trace of reef-building corals exists on the east coast north from Cape Florida. The long line of islands along this shore are of a totally different character, agreeing with those which now form the outer coast of New Jersey.

The discussion of the formation of atolls, such as the great Alacran Reef, we cannot follow in detail. Mr. Agassiz regards the structure of this interesting reef as a sort of epitome of the mode of formation of the great Florida Reef and of the Bahamas Bank, and says: "It seems to me that the structure of the Marquesas and of Alacran proves conclusively that not one point of difference exists between a barrier reef and an atoll" (p. 72). All the evidence tends to show that the maximum depth for reef-building corals is found at about twenty fathoms, and on the banks under discussion the shoaling which made reefs possible has been produced, not directly by the elevation of the earth's crust, but by the accumulation of organic débris upon the suitably situated elevations of the sea-bottom.

An important generalization of another sort is that made by Mr. Agassiz (p. 112), in which he points out that a relatively moderate elevation of the Floridian and Antillean plateaus in Tertiary times would have left the Caribbean Sea connected with the Atlantic by only four very narrow passages, while between the large islands which must at that time have represented Central America and northern South America, large openings led to the Pacific, so that practically the Caribbean would have formed a gulf of the Pacific. Coincidently, the Atlantic equatorial current would have been diverted northward, and followed either the course of the present Gulf Stream, or a direction across (the then non-existent) Florida, the Gulf of Mexico, and the (since elevated) Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and so into the Pacific. The conditions this hypothesis suggests fit in remarkably well with certain very puzzling facts of distribution in both recent and fossil faunas of the southern borderland of the United States.

The last matter to which we will refer as noteworthy is the very justifiable stress laid by Mr. Agassiz on the importance of the transportation of pelagic food by ocean currents, in controlling the geographical distribution of deep-water animals. This is one of the ideas which have long been, as it were, common property, but on which no one, so far as we remember, has hitherto put sufficient emphasis.

On one point we are disposed to "pick a crow," not especially with Mr. Agassiz, but with most hydrographers. It is on the preservation of the thalassologic superstitions in connection with the "hundred-fathom line," which here and in other works is regarded as the "true continental outline," the "edge of the continental plateau," etc. The hundred-fathom line was important, before the days of machine sounding, as the practical maximum limit of hand sounding, and hence of the length of the "dipsy line" carried by navigators. This and the peculiar "roundness" of the number have combined with tradition to give a hydrographic sacredness to the depth in question. In reality, as a glance at the sections figure 34, page 53, and any other sections of the continental slope, will show, there is nothing distinctive about this depth in connection with the continental margin, unless it is taken with a latitude of allowance which will divest it of any numerical significance. In general, somewhere between fifty fathoms and two hundred fathoms the seaward slope begins to be more abrupt, but not more often at the hundred-fathom mark than elsewhere, and often the slope is so even to a very great depth that no break can be distinguished in it at all. Of course, Mr. Agassiz knows this as well as anybody, but, like the practice of whistling to raise a breeze, the habit denounced by us is one of those which one absorbs unconsciously from nautical associations.

It is hardly necessary to say that the publishers have done their part well, and we have not noticed a typographical error in the course of a pretty careful perusal. The lettering of some of the Coast Survey diagrams would better have been enlarged before reduction, as, on the reduced plates, it has in some cases become difficult to make out. The specific name attached to the pelagic barnacle (fig. 182) should be *fascicularis* and not *analifa*. The latter is a littoral species inhabiting the northern seas.

Initials and Pseudonyms. By William Cushing. Second Series. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

A GOOD example of devotion to one subject is given by Mr. William Cushing. Twenty years ago he ceased to be an assistant in Harvard College Library, and ever since then he has given closest application to that small but useful branch of bibliography which is concerned with the unveiling of the troublesome authors who try, or pretend to try, to conceal their names from an inquisitive public. Not that Mr. Cushing imitates the modern reporter, and thrusts himself shamelessly into privacy; he is content, so far as we know, to record only what others have discovered, or what he has honorably found out. His service to the public is that he records it in a convenient form, and with an attempt not to tell too many facts which are not so. It is true, success in this has not been always at his command. The number of corrections already made in the first series of 'Initials and Pseudonyms' would run up into the hundreds. Of this one should not complain; it is almost inevitable in a work so dependent upon the accuracy and the chirography of others. But it is strange that Mr. Cushing has not printed in the second series a few pages of errata to the first. We wish, too, that he could have found room to give the authority or authorities on which he makes his revelations. There is often a doubt in regard to such attributions; one would like to know whether he is simply repeating what one has found elsewhere, or if he has some new evidence. Especially is this desirable when the author himself discloses his real name.

The work is generally well planned. But there is a lack of uniformity in the entry of initialisms, as Quérard calls them. For example, one finds M., M., and M., M. I. (in which the last initial used on the title-page is put first), followed by M. N., in which the order has not been reversed. Menella Bute Smedley used the initialism M. S. in three works. One of them is entered under M. S., and the two others under S., M. Thomas Curteis, Thomas Chamberlain, and Thomas Crowley's initialism T. C. is recorded under C.; but William Maginn's and Carlotta C. af Tibell's are under T. Similar inconsistencies are to be found under every letter of the alphabet except U, X, and Z. This is a very serious fault, for, as there is not a word of explanation, it will certainly lead searchers frequently to miss information which is in the work, but not where they will look for it. As names are transposed (*e. g.*, Dannenberg, Georg von), initialisms ought to have been.

The book calls itself "a dictionary of literary disguises," but there are also some entries that belong rather in Mr. Frey's book of 'Sobriquets and Nicknames.' On one page we find "Rafaelle of Auctioneers, The. *George Leigh.* So-called by Dr. Dibdin," and "Rail-Splitter. *Abraham Linyoln,*" which certainly are not literary disguises. Per contra, in one important respect the work is much superior to ordinary books of its kind. In Weller's 'Index Pseudonymorum,' the real name is given after the false one, but without any indication, except a single date, in what works the pseudonym is used. Fifty people may use the same disguise, so that Weller's work is, as he calls it, simply an Index, which points out the path, but does not lead one to the goal, merely sets one on the track, and leaves one to investigate for one's self. But the present work in a second part gives a very brief biographical sketch of the true authors, with either a list of their works, or sufficient indications of the character of their writings to enable one to guess whether the pseudonym that one is looking up is used by the author mentioned. When the pseudonym occurs only in one work, the title is given in the first part, and there is no need to refer to part ii. In short, the book, which discloses 4,800 real names that answer to 6,500 pseudonyms and initials, is very useful—indispensable, in fact—in a library of any size.

We are sorry to learn that the subscription to Mr. Cushing's 'Anonyms' has not been taken up to a degree sufficient to warrant publication, and that it will be necessary to issue that work at a higher price to a more limited number of subscribers. It is now proposed that it shall come out in four or five parts of 200 pages each, like Sabin's 'Bibliotheca Americana,' in paper, at $5 a part. Certainly, $20 or $25 is not too much to pay for 25,000 titles of anonymous books and pamphlets, with their authors' names. But it is not to the credit of American library committees that so many of them hesitated to take the work when it was offered at the lower price. It is to be hoped that those who were wiser will find themselves able to promise their assistance on the present terms, for it would be a great pity if the work of a score of years should after all have to go into the waste-basket.

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Handbook of Republican Institutions in the United States of America, based upon Federal and State laws, and other reliable sources of information. By Dugald J. Bannatyne. Scribner & Welford. [1887.] Pp. xx, 624.

THE great desideratum for the study of the politics and history of the United States is a brief, lucid, systematic account of the form of the Government. It should contain a description of the State and national governments; there should be sketches of the growth of important institutions; and the description of each part of the system should be rounded off with intelligent comment and criticism; finally, it should be written for popular use. At first sight Mr. Bannatyne seems to have filled the vacant place on the library shelf. The clear type, systematic table of contents, and neatly arranged columns suggest precision of thought. He announces his purpose to "spread before his countrymen" in Great Britain "a banquet of Republican Institutions." With all respect for the author's candor and good-will, it cannot be said that he has made the banquet alluring to any reader.

The introduction contains a rambling account of the social condition of the United States, and the confusion of the narrative may be seen from the subjects touched upon in three consecutive pages; they are: Primary elections, the wickedness of human nature, the object of laws, religious freedom, religious denominations, the number of oaths and affidavits required, population, illiteracy, prisons, the unreliability of newspapers, defalcations, bribes and crimes—ending with "*Unum e pluribus* is the American motto." The basis of Mr. Bannatyne's information in many cases seems to be newspaper comment; his own criticism is commonplace and superficial. The second part of the work is an account of the United States Government. A comparison with the Revised Statutes of 1878 shows that it has been composed by the simple process of extracting titles and paragraphs, omitting here, interjecting a later statute or appropriation there, and occasionally altering the order—all on no discernible principle. The third part, on the Government of the State of New York, is made up in the same way. Mr. Bannatyne frankly announces that he intends to adopt the "words of the statutes as much as possible." But no lawyer would use a book compiled on that principle, without quotation marks or references or an index; and no general reader is likely to care for extracts without comment and often without point.

The Story of the Goths, from the earliest times to the end of the Gothic dominion in Spain. By Henry Bradley. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

MR. BRADLEY has made a useful addition to the series of which his volume forms a part. As "the first English book expressly treating of the history of the Goths," it deserves especial recognition. It is not, however, as if the materials were scanty or inaccessible. They are so complete, and so well digested in the works of Gibbon, Dahn, Hodgkin, and others, that Mr. Bradley's task has not been that of a pioneer. Of these abundant materials he has made good use, and has produced a book of great merit, written in a sober, well-sustained style, and showing the marks of careful industry and discretion. The illustrations are hardly equal to those of most of the volumes of this series; the views of Ravenna and the numerous coins are, however, all that could be wished. The map, for the year 485 (the death of Euric), is very serviceable, especially as we do not remember any map of Europe at just this date, and the territorial changes in that period were so numerous and rapid that such special maps, even if scattered through different books, are much to be desired. The text hardly does justice to the importance of Euric's reign in the history of the Gothic power.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barres, Maurice. Sous l'œil des barbares. Paris: A. Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof.
Battles and Leaders of the Civil War. Nos. 17 and 18. The Century Co. 50 cents.
Bigelow, J. The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. VIII. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. II. Paracelsus —Strafford. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Cawein, M. J. Blooms of the Berry. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $1.
Chiptree, A. A Flurry in Diamonds: A Novel. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Cutts, Rev. E. L. Colchester. [Historic Towns.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Drummond, H. Tropical Africa. Scribner & Welford.
Du Boisgobey, F. A Mystery Still. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cent.
Galloway, R. The Fundamental Principles of Chemistry Practically Taught by a New Method. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Gannett—Jones. The Faith that Makes Faithful. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Goyen, P. A Higher Arithmetic and Elementary Mensuration, for the Senior Classes of Schools. Macmillan & Co. $1.30.
Howells—Perry. Library of Universal Adventure by Sea and Land. From the Year 79 A. D. to the Year 1888 A. D. Harper & Bros.
Jennings, A. C. Chronological Tables of Ancient History. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.

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